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T H E

L I T E R A R Y   A N D   B I O G R A P H I C A L

M A G A Z I N E,

A N D

B R I T I S H   R E V I E W,

For   D E C E M B E R,   1792.

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M E M O I R S   O F   D R.   M A R K   A K E N S I D E.

W I T H   A N   E L E G A N T   H E A D.

**D**R. MARK AKENSIDE, the subject of the present memoirs, was the second son of Mark Akenfide, an eminent butcher at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. He was born Nov. 9, 1721, and received the early part of his education at the free-school of that place. After some time, he was put under the care of Mr. Wilfon, who kept an academy, and was a dissenting minister; and, at about the age of eighteen, was sent to the university of Edinburgh, with a view of qualifying for the same profession. However, it appears he did not attend to that study for more than one winter, when he turned his thoughts to physic; but conceiving himself under some obligations to the funds of the English

Dissenters, who had given some assistance towards his education, he was induced to take the earliest opportunity of refunding the money which had been expended upon him by that society. At a very early period of his life, his talents for poetry became visible. The Pleasures of Imagination, and several other poems, were written by him at Morpeth, while on a visit to his relations, at the time he was under the tuition of Mr. Wilfon. About the same time, his ode on the Winter Solstice was written. After having resided about three years at Edinburgh, he removed to Leyden, where he took his degree for doctor of physic. His justly celebrated poem of the Pleasures of Imagination\* did not

\* To the Pleasures of Imagination, succeeded two books of odes; the first containing eighteen odes, and the second fifteen. It was Dr. Akenfide's intention, if he had lived, to have made each book consist of twenty. Those which had been formerly published, are greatly altered and improved. The doctor's odes are not equal to the sublime and beautiful productions of Mr Gray, nor perhaps to those of one or two living writers; but still there is in them a noble vein of poetry, united with manly sense, and

not appear till May 1774, and was received with great applause by the poetical part of the world. Mr. Warburton, the then bishop of Gloucester, took some disgust at a note in the third book, respecting the nature and objects of ridicule, and found an opportunity of making some severe remarks upon our author, in his preface to certain remarks upon his antagonists. He, however, attacked him as a philosopher only, without interfering with his poetical talents; and Dr. Akenfide was strongly supported by an anonymous friend, which proved to be the Right Hon. Jeremiah Dyson. His next publication was a political one, under the title of *Curio*, and contained some severe invectives against the Earl of Bath, concerning his political character. The doctor, however, afterwards became so much dissatisfied with this work, that he altered it greatly; and by changing it into the form of an ode, and curtailing it, reduced it to half its original length. In the year 1745, he published general odes on various subjects, which were written at different intervals. In his own opinion, his chief merit was in being correct, and studiously attending to the best models. The greatest part of those productions made their appearance before he reached the twenty-fourth year of his age. He was afterwards more slow in his publications. His ode to the Earl of Huntingdon came out in 1748; and in 1758, he shewed his desire of rousing the national spirit of the English nation, by publishing an ode to the country gentlemen of Eng-

land. Most of his other poetical works have been given in Doddsley's collection, except an ode to Thomas Edwards, Esq. which was published separately, in 1766, with an intent to shew the great dislike he had for Dr. Warburton. His principal performance as a physical writer, was a *Treatise on the Dysentery*, written in Latin, and published in 1764. Our author, though a man of great talents and liberal education, seems to have laboured under some difficulties; and having but little practice in his profession, when he first settled in London, he appears to have been under infinite obligations to a particular and intimate friend, Mr. Dyson. This gentleman, after his decease, became possessed of the principal part of his effects; whether they were left him by the doctor as a token of friendship, or claimed by Mr. Dyson by way of reimbursing himself, we know not. After Dr. Akenfide had resided some time in London, he acquired great reputation, came into great practice, and arrived at most of the honours that attend his profession. He was fellow of the Royal Society, physician to St. Thomas's Hospital, doctor in physic in the university of Cambridge, fellow of the royal college of physicians in London, and was appointed one of the physicians to her majesty. He died of a putrid fever, in the 49th year of his age, on the 23d of June, 1770. The doctor was a great admirer of ancient literature, much devoted to philosophy and antiquity, and a great advocate for Plato and Cicero. He was peculiarly distinguished

applied to excellent purposes. This encomium cannot be extended to the whole of his odes, without exception. Dr. Akenfide does not always preserve the dignity of the lyric muse. He is defective in the pathetic, even upon a subject which peculiarly required it, and where it might have been most expected, the death of his mistress. We mean his ode to the Evening Star. However, his hymn to Chearfulness, and his odes on leaving Holland, on Lyric Poetry, to the Earl of Huntingdon, and on recovering from a fit of sickness, justly entitle him to a place among the principal lyric writers of this country. The hymn to the Naiads, and nine inscriptions, complete his poetical works. In Pearch's collection of poems, we find three pieces ascribed to Dr. Akenfide—Love, an elegy; a British Phillippic; and a hymn to Science; which, if they were written by him, he did not think proper to acknowledge.

Biog. Brit. Note, p. 107.

guished for a sincere reverence for fundamental religion, which is plainly shewn by many of his poetical works. In his political character, he was warmly attached to the cause of civil and religious liberty. This last trait in his character

shines conspicuous in most of his poetical writings, but more particularly in an ode to the Earl of Huntingdon, and another to the Bishop of Winchester: his religious sentiments are finely given in an ode to William Hall, Esq.

## BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

## NUMBER IX.

## MARY Queen of SCOTS.

THE following copy of verses, written by this beautiful and unfortunate princess during her confinement in Fotheringay castle, is presented to the public by the kindness of a very eminent and liberal collector.

Que suis je hélas? Et de quoi sert la vie?  
J'en suis fors qu'un corps privé de cœur?  
Un ombre vayne, un objet de malheur,  
Qui n'a plus rien que de mourir en vie.  
Plus ne me portez, O enemys, d'envie,  
Qui n'a plus l'esprit à la grandeur:  
J'ai contomme d'excessive douleur,  
Vostre ire en bref de voir assouvie.  
Et vous amys que m'avez tenu chere,  
Souvenez-vous que sans cœur, & sans  
fantey,  
Je ne scaurois aucun bon œuvre faire.  
Souhaitez donc fin de calamitey,  
Et que sus bas etant assez punie,  
J'aie ma part en la joie infinie.

The verses are written on a sheet of paper by Mary herself, in a large rambling hand. The following literal translation of them was made by a countrywoman of Mary's, a lady who, in elegance of person and of mind, is by no means inferior to that accomplished and unfortunate princess.

Alas! what am I? and in what estate?  
A wretched corse, bereaved of its heart;  
An empty shadow, lost, unfortunate;  
To die is now in life my only part.

Foes to my greatness, let your envy rest,  
In me no taste for grandeur now is found:  
Consum'd by grief, with heavy ills oppress'd,  
Your wishes and desires will soon be crown'd.

And you, my friends, who still have held  
me dear,  
Bethink you, that when health and heart  
are fled,

And ev'ry hope of future good is dead,  
'Tis time to with our sorrows ended here;  
And that this punishment on earth is given,  
That my pure soul may rise to endless bliss  
in heaven.

In her way to Fotheringay castle, Mary stopped a few hours at Buxton, and with her diamond ring she wrote on a pane of glass at the inn of that place—

Buxtona, quæ tepidæ celebrabere numine  
lymphæ,  
Buxtona, fortè iterum non adeunda, vale!  
Uncertain in the womb of fate  
What ills on wretched Mary wait!  
Buxton, my tribute (whilst I may)  
To thy fam'd tepid fount I pay;  
That fount, the cure of ills and pain,  
Which I shall never see again.

In the State Paper Office there are many curious papers and memorials in MS. relative to this unfortunate queen, which well deserve to be published; and indeed, from that wonderful and exquisite repository of papers, what illustrations might occasionally be thrown upon some of the most important parts of the History of England, and what a useful and entertaining work might be compiled upon that plan; a work which, in certain hands, would do honour to the country, as well as to the author of it. It is a work that would not tie down its author to any fixed or regular plan; he might take up any part of our history, or any period of it, as he pleased; he

might confine himself merely to those parts that were the most capable of illustration, and of receiving new information;

*Et quæ desperat tractata nitescere posse relinquet.*

Many curious MS. papers relative to Mary Queen of Scots are to be met with in the library of the Scots college at Paris. The last time David Hume was in that city, the learned and excellent principal of the college shewed them to him, and asked him, why he had pretended to write her history in an unfavourable manner without consulting them? David, on being told this, looked over some letters that the principal put into his hands, and though not much used to the melting mood, burst into tears. Had Mary written the memoirs of her own life, how interesting must they have been; a queen, a beauty, a wit, a scholar, in distress, must have laid hold of the heart of every reader; and there is all the reason in the world to suppose, that she would have been candid and impartial. Mary, indeed, completely contradicted the observation made by the learned Selden in his Table-talk, "that men are not troubled to hear men dispraised, because they know that though one be nought, there is still worth in others; but *women* are mightily troubled to hear any of themselves spoken against, as if the sex itself were guilty of some unworthiness:" for when one of the Cecil family, minister to Scotland from England in Mary's reign, was speaking of the wisdom of his sovereign Queen Elizabeth, Mary stopt him short, by saying, "*Seigneur chevalier, ne me parlez jamais de la sagesse d'une femme; je connois bien mon sexe; la plus sage de nous toutes n'est qu'un peu moins sotte que les autres.*" The pictures in general supposed to be those of this unfortunate princess, differ very much from one another, and all of them from the gold medal struck of her and her husband Francis the

Second at Paris, and which is now in Dr. Hunter's museum in Windmill-street, London. This medal represents her as having a turned-up nose. Mary, however, was so graceful in her figure, that when at one of the processions of the host at Paris, she was carrying the wafer in the pix, a woman burst through the croud to touch her, to convince herself that she was not an angel.

Mary was so learned, that at the age of fifteen years she pronounced a Latin oration of her own composition before the whole court of France at the Louvre.

A very curious account of her execution was published in France soon after that event, and it appears by that, that on her body's falling after decapitation, her favourite spangiel jumped out of her clothes. Immediately before her execution she repeated the following Latin prayer, composed by herself; which has lately been set to a very solemn and affecting glee for three voices, by the ingenious Dr. Harrington, of Bath.

O Domine Deus, speravi in te!  
O care mi Jesu, nunc libera me!  
In durâ catenâ, in miserâ pœnâ, des-  
dero te!

Languendo, gemendo, & genuflectendo,  
Adoro, imploro, ut liberet me!

It may be thus paraphrased:

In this last solemn and tremendous hour,  
My Lord, my Saviour, I invoke thy power;  
In these sad pangs of anguish and of death,  
Receive, O Lord, thy suppliant's parting  
breath!

Before thy hallow'd cross the prostrate lies,  
O hear her prayers, commiserate her sighs!  
Extend thy arms of mercy and of love,  
And bear her to thy peaceful realms above.

Mary was buried in Peterborough cathedral, before a very fine Gothic tomb, which has been, without any foundation, supposed to be that of this princess. It has been lately restored, with very great taste and judgment, from a design made by Mr. Carter, that ingenious Gothic draftsman, whose drawings from Lord Orford's celebrated romance of the "*Castle of Otranto*," have given



given so much pleasure at some of the late exhibitions of the Royal Academy.

Buchanan dedicated his Latin translation of the Psalms, to Queen Mary. The concluding lines of his translation are—

Non tamen ausus eram, malé natum exponere sætum,  
Ne mihi displiceant, quæ placuere, tibi,  
Nam quod ab ingenio Domini sperare nequibunt,  
Debeant genio forsitam illa tuo.

They were thus altered by Bishop Atterbury the night before he died, and were sent by him to the late Lord Marshal Keith.

At si culta parum, si sint incondita.  
Nostri  
Scilicet ingenii est, non ea culpa soli  
Possit etiam hæc nosci quæ sunt pulcherrima  
spondet,  
Ex vultu & genio Scotica terra tuo.

If these rude barb'rous lines their author shame,

His muse and not his country is to blame;  
That excellence e'en Scotland can bestow,  
We from thy genius and thy beauty know.

Mary made Ronfard, the celebrated French poet, a present of a piece of plate, representing the mountain of Pegasus and the nine Muses. Under the inscription was—

A Ronfard, l'Apollon de la source des Muses.

To Ronfard, Phœbus of the Muses' seat.

Brantome, in his memoirs of the illustrious ladies of his time, makes Queen Mary the model not only of every grace, but of every virtue, and says, that she ought to be canonized as a saint. In his kind breast, indeed, compassion for her misfortunes had extinguished all remembrance of her failings and vices.

LOUIS II. Duke of BOURBON.

This illustrious prince, from whom the present royal family of France are lineally descended, instituted an order of chivalry in 1369.

In his harangue to the knights on their institution, he said, "I beg that all who are of this order will honour women and maidens, and that they will not suffer any ill to be spoken of them; for those who speak ill of them, are of little honour, and will speak of a woman, who cannot revenge it, what they dare not say of a man, which makes their disgrace the greater; for from woman, under God, springs a great part of the honour of this world." Francis the First used to say, "that a court without ladies, was like the spring without roses." Louis de Bourbon was detained a great while in prison in England; and on his return, his chancellor presented him with a list of his nobles, who had made depredations on his domain. His only reply was, "Have you not likewise kept a list of the good services they have done me? Let us set one against the other." He then took the list that his chancellor had given him, and threw it into the fire, before many of the offenders, who were standing around him. He used to say, "La mort m'a rien d'effraiant a un preudhomme.\*" He was so beloved, that his historian tells us, at his death the people lamented him, exclaiming that they had lost "leur prince, leur comfort, le plus preudhomme, de la meilleure conscience, & de la meilleure vie qu'on seut trouver." The anagram of Borboniusis, "Orbi bonas." Would to heaven that all of this name had proved so.

Le Grande Connetable Bourbon said one day something ill-humoured and unpleasant to Francis the First. "Ah! mon cousin, vous sachez de tout & etes bien mal endurant," was the courteous monarch's answer. From this speech of the king's, the constable got the nick-name "*du Prince mal endurant*." When this great general was leading his troops to

\* In old French, a *brave man*, a man of courage. It sometimes means a man of skill or wisdom.

to Rome, his army was in want of every thing, his domains were sequestered, he was under sentence of death; he tells his troops not to expect any thing from him, that he was nothing but, *un pauvre gentil-homme, sans domaines & sans patrie*, who had nothing but his sword to depend on, (*omnes spes nostra in ferro situ est*, was his motto); "but," said he, "if you will have confidence in me, I will carry you to a country (meaning Rome) where you shall revel in wealth and in spoil." The whole army cried out, "We will have no other general; under your orders we will destroy the whole world." They made a song of one part of his speech, which they used to sing before him in their Spanish dialect, and in which they were sometimes joined by their general himself.

*Dezio le mios senores yo so probe cavallero,  
Y tanbren como vos otros, no tengo un denero.*

Alas, I am a valiant gentleman like you,  
My noble seigneurs, and without a sou.

As he was mounting the walls of Rome, on a sudden he was killed by a musket ball. Cettini pretends to say, that it came from his hand. He had merely time, before he died, to desire the persons near him to cover his body with a cloak, that his army might not perceive that he was killed, and be dispirited. On hearing, however, of the event, they cried out in Spanish, "*Carné, fangre, sierra, sierra.*"—"Carnage, blood, hatchets, hatchets." They caused the following inscription to be put over his grave—

*Austo Imperio,  
Gallo Vieto,  
Superatâ Italiâ,  
Pontifice Obsesso,  
Româ Captâ,  
Borbonius hic jacet.*

His body was removed from Rome to Mola di Gaeta, where it at present remains in a closet in a church, covered with the same armour which

the constable had on when he was killed. Brantome, speaking of the bravery of one of the family of Bourbon, says, "*Car de cette race de Bourbon il n'y en a point d'autres.*"

Abbe PREVOST.

The effects of the infatuation of illicit love were, perhaps, never better painted than by this eloquent and laborious writer. Love, however, enters so little into the general system of human affairs, that however violent it may sometimes chance to be, it hardly seems to deserve the notice that is paid to it by many writers, who seem to wish, by their own heated heads, to inflame the imaginations of their readers.

A much more useful work of the Abbe's is, his method to learn a language in three months, inserted in his *Literary Journal*, called the "*Pour et le Contre.*" In this project he sets out with laying down, as a necessary preliminary, that the person who begins a new language, should at least know one language grammatically. He is then to get a vocabulary of the language he wishes to learn; and every night, on going to bed, to read over two or three times forty or fifty words of it, with the signification of each word in his own language opposite to it. In the morning, on waking, he is to repeat what he remembers of his paper. A few weeks, persisted in steadily with this plan, will give the leading words of any language whatever, and the rest will follow with great ease.

Lord BOLINGBROKE,

According to Spence, was a man of such wonderful talents, that he learned the Spanish language in three weeks. On seeing Cardinal de Noailles perform high mass at Notre Dame at Paris, he said—"Were I king of France, I would permit no one but myself to do this." When the patriots had resolved not to oppose Sir Robert Walpole's wild scheme of a general excise, (a scheme of revenue collected with more

more certainty, and less expence, than any other) Lord Bolingbroke went round to them, and told them they must oppose it, unless they wished Sir Robert to be minister for ever. "The wiser," adds he, "any minister's scheme is, the more it should be opposed by those who wish to succeed him: a foolish measure destroys itself." Aaron Hill told Savage, that Lord Bolingbroke was the finest gentleman he had ever seen; Savage used to say the same of Aaron Hill.

PROCESS OF CONVERTING THE SMOKE OF STEAM-ENGINES, &c.  
INTO TAR.

IN A LETTER FROM MR. PITT, OF PENDEFORD, TO MR. MORE.

FROM THE TRANSACTIONS OF THE SOCIETY FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT  
OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.

"H<sup>A</sup>VING had occasion to spend a good deal of time upon business, in the coal and iron works of this country, my situation amidst the smoke of those great works put me upon the idea hinted at in the 153d premium of the eighth volume of the Society's Transactions; namely, that of destroying smoke, in order to prevent annoyance to the neighbourhood.

"That the object is not only attainable, will be demonstrated in the following narrative; but also that valuable articles of commerce may be produced in large quantities, whenever the proprietors of such works shall adopt the mode of constructing their buildings proper for such production.

"The articles of commerce I allude to, are mineral tar, pitch, and varnish: there are already three considerable works erected on the banks of the canal in this county, for the purpose of converting the smoke of pitcoal into the above articles; the one at Mr. Wilkinson's great works at Bradley, another at Tipton, and a third at the Level Colliery and iron works upon Dudley-wood: they were erected by Lord Dundonald and Co. and the business is carried on with success.

"These tar-works are erected in the vicinity of large iron and coal works: the iron masters furnish the tar-works with raw coal, gratis, and receive in return the cokes produced

by such coal, and the proprietors of the tar-works have the smoke only for their labour, and interest of capital.

"The process is conducted in the following manner: a range of eighteen or twenty stoves is erected, and supplied with coal kept burning at the bottom; the smoke is conducted, by proper horizontal tunnels, into a capacious and close funnel, of one hundred yards or more in length; this funnel is built with brick, supported by brick arches, and covered on the top by a shallow pond of water, which pond is supplied with water, when wanted, by a steam-engine belonging to the coal or iron-works; the chill of the water gradually condensing the smoke, it falls upon the floor of the funnel in the form of tar, and is conveyed by proper pipes into a receiver, from whence it is pumped into a large boiler, and boiled to a proper consistence, or otherwise inspissated into pitch: when the latter is the case, the volatile particles which arise during the inspissation are again condensed into an oil used for varnish.

"In this process the smoke is decomposed and destroyed, nothing arising from the work but a white vapour from some small funnels (kept open to give draught to the fires), and a small evaporation of water from the pond, occasioned by the warmth of the smoke within the funnel.

"The

"The process requires but little attendance, the principal labour being that of supplying the fuel. In any one of the tar works the quantity of coal used is about twenty tons per day; three labourers, with a foreman, are sufficient for the whole business: the quantity of tar produced will be about twenty-eight barrels, of two hundred weight and an half, in six days, worth ten shillings per hundred, or twenty one barrels of pitch, of the same weight, worth fifteen shillings per hundred; though I was assured, upon the spot, by a very intelligent person, that some coal is of so bituminous a quality, as to give one eighth its weight of tar; but the quantity above stated is about the average produce.

"In order to bring the above practice within the society's intentions, an alteration in the erection of steam-engines, furnaces, &c. must take place; the alteration will be no more than that of erecting them below ground, instead of above: and when raising water is the main object, an adoption of the forcing or lifting pump instead of the sucking pump, or the sucking pump may be still employed, wherever the fall of ground gives an opportunity of letting off the water raised, by an aqueduct; in which case, the lift being shortened, and less power necessary, ample amends will be thereby made for the expence of such aqueduct.

"Such kind of buildings, from a low situation, within the earth's surface, will certainly acquire additional stability: and to those who are acquainted with the trifling expence of removing soil to only small distances, the additional charge will appear trifling, and will be more than recompensed by such acquired stability. In some local situations, in hilly countries, the smoking works being erected at the foot, and the tar-funnel higher up the hill, a communication may be effected without such alteration. Perhaps it may be right for the society to offer a pre-

mium to the first person who shall erect a steam engine, or other similar work, upon this plan.

"To prove the above idea is not ill-founded, I beg leave to report, that about three weeks ago, I particularly examined the tar-work on Dudley wood; and found the foreman of the work intelligent and communicative; and walking with him on the top of the tar-funnel, observed a prodigious smoke arise from a steam-engine, about thirty yards distant, fresh fuel having just been added. When I put this question, would that smoke make tar, if it passed into your funnel? he answered, most certainly. Would your confining it there, prevent the fire burning below, sufficient to do its office of working the steam-engines? Answer, certainly not; as our small funnels allow sufficient draught to keep the fire burning, which draught we can increase or diminish at pleasure.

"I find by reports from other quarters, that successful attempts have been made to make cokes of the coal employed in working steam-engines: the additional improvement of making tar from the smoke, would not only prevent annoyance to the neighbourhood, but also apply to the best advantage every particle of that valuable and comfortable article, coal; prodigious quantities of which are at present wasted by being burned in one place for heat only, in another for cokes only; when, by due attention, both purposes may in many cases be effected at the same time.

"I was informed upon the spot, from undoubted authority, that the consumption of coal in Mr. Wilkinson's great works, at Bradley, is one hundred tons per day: about one fifth of the smoke is actually employed in making of tar; and the remainder, or the smoke of eighty tons per day, flies away. This, if collected, would yield upward of eighteen barrels of tar, of two hundred and an half each: and if the smoke

Smoke of the great works of the kingdom was in general collected for the same use, what a prodigious addition would it be, to the production of a commercial and necessary article, which always finds a ready market, and will in many instances supply the place of the vegetable tar, at present imported from abroad!

"That some idea may be formed of the consumption of coal in steam-engines for raising water, I beg leave

to report the following, of which I had certain information upon the spot; namely, that some such engines individually consume one hundred tons per week of coal; that others, though powerful, with the improvements of Messrs. Boulton and Watt, are kept on with about twenty-five tons per week; and that the weekly consumption varies between those two quantities, viz. from twenty-five to one hundred tons."

AN ABRIDGMENT OF DR. SCHWEDIAWER'S PAPER ON  
AMBERGRISE.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

AMBERGRISE, or grey amber, is a solid, opaque, inflammable substance, of a white grey, sometimes of a blackish colour, which, melted or inflamed, yields a peculiar smell, agreeable to most persons, but disagreeable to others.

As it occurs in the shops, it varies in its consistence, according as it has been exposed to a warmer or colder air. It is a hard brittle substance, yet not so hard as to admit a polish; and it has no transparency. When masticated or scraped with a knife, part of it adheres to the teeth or knife. It yields to the impression of the nail; and it has no peculiar, or rather an earthy, taste when chewed.

It has, in its natural state, a peculiar strong smell. The older it grows, the more it seems to become agreeable. This smell is rendered more sensible by rubbing it with the fingers, or by burning or melting it.

It melts, in a moderate degree of heat, into a blackish thick oil; and then smokes, skums, and flies by degrees entirely off, without leaving any coal behind; so it does likewise when put upon any heated metal, leaving only a black spot upon it: when the metal is red-hot, it melts and inflames instantaneously, smokes strongly, and flies spec-

dily, without leaving the least mark behind. When brought near a burning candle, it catches fire immediately, and burns with a clear bright flame till it is consumed. It is so light as to swim upon water. When kept for a certain time, it is covered with a kind of white grey dust, like chocolate. When broken, it appears of a granulated texture; and some pieces have the appearance of strata. It feels rather rough when first touched; but, when rubbed with the fingers, it feels like hard soap, or rather like that kind of stone which the mineralogists call *smectis*.

It is found swimming upon the sea, or on various sea coasts. It is sometimes found in the abdomen of whales, in lumps of various shapes and sizes, weighing from half an ounce to an hundred and more pounds. An American fisherman from Antigua found some years ago, about 52 leagues south-east from the Windward Islands, a piece of ambergrise in a whale, which weighed about 130 pounds, and sold for 500l. sterling.

Though it has been mentioned by many writers that beaks of birds, feathers, and other substances, were frequently found in ambergrise, yet Dr. S. on a strict examination finds that the only extraneous matter

found in it appears to be the beaks of the *sepia octopodia*; which shews that either ambergrise contains them from its origin, or that it must have been once in a very soft or liquid state.

The author having had the opportunity of examining persons who had been long acquainted with the whale fishery, and having collected together all the observations made on the subject, reasons with great judgment upon them. But, for brevity's sake, we shall add only the result of those observations.

Ambergrise is sometimes found in the belly of the whale; but in that particular species only which is called the spermaceti whale, the *physeter macrocephalus* of Linnæus.

The fishermen are always pretty sure of finding some ambergrise in a spermaceti whale, male or female, which seems torpid and sickly; and it is observed also that the whale in which they find ambergrise, often has a morbid protuberance or gathering in the lower part of its belly, in which, if cut open, ambergrise is

found. The ambergrise found in the intestinal canal, which, upon the whole, seems to be the only place that harbours it, is not so hard as that found on the sea coast; but it grows hard in the air, and at the same time loses the bad smell of the excrement amongst which it is found, and at last becomes exactly like the ambergrise that is found on the sea coast.

What accounts for the presence of the beaks of the *sepia octopodia*, or cuttle fish, in ambergrise, is, that this fish is the constant and natural food of the spermaceti whale. I think, says the author, we may venture to conclude, that all ambergrise, of any considerable size, is generated in the bowels of the spermaceti whale; and there mixed with the beaks of the *sepia octopodia*, which is the principal food of that whale; and we may therefore define ambergrise to be a preternaturally hardened dung or *faces* of the *physeter macrocephalus*, mixed with some indigestible relics of its food.

#### ABSTRACT OF THE ABBE BERTHOLON'S PAPER ON FIRES, AND THE MEANS OF EXTINGUISHING THEM.

PUBLISHED IN THE LAUSANNE MEMOIRS.

THIS subject is important and interesting, although the Abbé has rather collected the observations and experiments made by others, than conveyed any new and original information. He ascribes the inflammability of bodies to the inflammable gas which they contain, and which, on their decomposition by heat, is let loose, and coming into contact with the atmosphere is ignited, and bursts out into flame. The principal part of the memoir is devoted to a detail of the means of preventing and extinguishing fires; and here the author's chief advice, which is "in the construction of buildings, to employ as little

as possible of those materials which yield inflammable air on their decomposition," will be allowed to be perfectly just in theory, but will probably be little followed in practice; nor is the security resulting from brick floors likely to compensate, in this age of affected elegance, for their appearance. He informs us, however, that M. Ango, an architect of Paris, has contrived a method of constructing a floor with iron bars, instead of timber joists, which is even less expensive than the common mode. The wood used in buildings may be rendered unflammable, by being steeped in a saline solution, and by being prepared



pared with allum, even canvass and paper hangings may be made to burn without flame.

Many other precautions are mentioned by the Abbé, which we shall not detail, as they are universally known, and we believe pretty generally adopted. After describing the inventions of Mr. Hartly and Lord Mahon, together with a preparation similar to that of Lord Mahon's, recommended by M. Frederic, of Vienna, the Abbé gives an account of a substance, which he calls paper stone, invented by Dr. Faye, physician to the Swedish admiralty: its composition is not known, but from a chemical analysis it appears to consist of two parts of an earthy basis, and one of animal oil, mixed up with two parts of some vegetable substance. At Carlserone a hut was built of dry wood, covered with this paper, which is not more than two lines in thickness, it was then filled with combustibles, which were set on fire and consumed without burning the building; the paper, which had been pasted on boards, was reduced to a cinder, and formed a kind of incrustation, which preserved them from the effects of the flame. As this paper readily takes any colour, it may be rendered ornamental as well as useful.

In his directions for extinguishing fires, the Abbé observes that

water, in which a small quantity of potash has been dissolved, is more efficacious than any other; he also recommends an engine called an hydraulic ventilator, invented by M. Castelli, which is worked by vanes instead of pistons, and may be managed by one person. The advantages ascribed by our author to this machine are very considerable, but we cannot suppress our astonishment on being told, that with a cylinder of only three inches in diameter, it will throw up more water than the largest fire engine; however, it certainly appears to be less expensive and more portable than the common forcing pumps, and may be of use in extinguishing a fire, before it has made any great progress. The utility of garden mould with wet sand in this respect, is well known, but it can seldom be applied, and we doubt the efficacy of the kind of catapult which the author recommends, for throwing it to any distance.

The remainder of the memoir contains some very just and obvious remarks on the necessity of a regular discipline among firemen, and it concludes with a description of the engines, cisterns and pipes at the opera house in Paris, the construction and arrangement of which the Abbé recommends to be adopted in every public theatre.

## ON THE CURE OF PERSONS BITTEN BY SNAKES.

BY JOHN WILLIAMS, ESQ.

FROM THE ASIATIC RESEARCHES.

THE following statement of facts relative to the cure of persons bitten by snakes, selected from a number of cases which have come within my own knowledge, require no prefatory introduction; as it points out the means of obtaining the greatest self-gratification the human mind is capable of experiencing—that of the preservation

of the life of a fellow-creature, and snatching him from the jaws of death, by a method which every person is capable of availing himself of. Eau de luce, I learn from many communications which I have received from different parts of the country, answers as well as the pure caustic alkali spirit; and though, from its having some essen-

tial oils in its composition, it may not be so powerful, yet, as it must be given with water, it only requires to increase the dose in proportion; and, so long as it retains its milky white colour, it is sufficiently efficacious.

From the effect of a ligature, applied between the part bitten and the heart, it is evident that the poison diffuses itself over the body by the returning venous blood; destroying the irritability, and rendering the system paralytic. It is therefore probable that the volatile caustic alkali, in resisting the disease of the poison, does not act so much as a specific in destroying its quality, as by counteracting the effect on the system, by stimulating the fibres, and preserving that irritability which it tends to destroy.

CASE I. In the month of August 1780, a servant of mine was bitten in the heel, as he supposed, by a snake; and in a few minutes was in great agony, with convulsions about the throat and jaws, and continual grinding of teeth: having a wish to try the effects of volatile alkali in such cases, I gave him about forty drops of eau de luce in water, and applied some of it to the part bitten; the dose was repeated every eight or ten minutes, till a small phial-full was expended: it was near two hours before it could be said he was out of danger. A numbness and pricking sensation was perceived extending itself up to the knee, where a ligature was applied so tight as to stop the returning venous blood, which seemingly checked the progress of the deleterious poison. The foot and leg, up to where the ligature was made, were stiff and painful for several days; and, which appeared very singular, were covered with a branny scale.

The above was the first case in which I tried the effects of the volatile alkali, and apprehending that the essential oils in the composition of eau de luce, though made of the strong caustic volatile spirit, would

considerably diminish its powers, I was induced, the next opportunity that offered, to try the effects of the pure volatile caustic alkali spirit, and accordingly prepared some from quicklime and the sal ammoniac of this country.

CASE II. In July 1782, a woman of the Bráhmán cast, who lived in my neighbourhood at Chunár, was bitten by a cobra de capello between the thumb and fore-finger of her right hand: prayers and superstitious incantations were practised by the Bráhmans about her till she became speechless and convulsed, with locked jaws, and a profuse discharge of saliva running from her mouth. On being informed of the accident, I immediately sent a servant with a bottle of the volatile caustic alkali spirit, of which he poured about a tea-spoonful, mixed with water, down her throat, and applied some of it to the part bitten: the dose was repeated a few minutes after, when she was evidently better, and in about half an hour was perfectly recovered.

CASE III. A woman servant in the family of a gentleman at Benares was bitten in the foot by a cobra de capello: the gentleman immediately applied to me for some of the volatile caustic alkali, which I fortunately had by me. I gave her about sixty drops in water, and also applied some of it to the part bitten: in about seven or eight minutes after, she was quite recovered. In the above case, I was not witness to the deleterious effect of the poison on the patient; but saw the snake after it was killed.

CASE IV. In July 1784, the wife of a servant of mine was bitten by a cobra de capello on the outside of the little toe of her right foot. In a few minutes she became convulsed, particularly about the jaws and throat, with a continued gnashing of the teeth. She at first complained of a numbness extending from the wound upwards, but no ligature was applied to the limb. About  
 sixty

sixty drops of the volatile caustic spirit were given to her in water, by forcing open her mouth, which was strongly convulsed: in about seven minutes the dose was repeated, when the convulsions left her; and in three more she became sensible, and spoke to those who attended her. A few drops of the spirit had also been applied to the wound. The snake was killed and brought to me, which proved to be a cobra de capello.

CASE V. As it is generally believed, that the venom of snakes is more malignant during hot dry weather than at any other season; the following case, which occurred in the month of July 1788, when the weather was extremely hot, no rain, excepting a slight shower, having fallen for many months, may not be unworthy notice.

A servant belonging to an officer at Juanpoor, was bitten by a snake on the leg, about two inches above the outer angle. As the accident happened in the evening, he could not see what species of snake it was: he immediately tied a ligature above the part bitten, but was in a few minutes in such exquisite torture from pain, which extended up his body and to his head, that he soon became dizzy and senseless. On being informed of the accident, I sent my servant with a phial of the volatile caustic alkali, who found him, when he arrived, quite torpid, with the saliva running out of his mouth, and his jaws so fast locked, as to render it necessary to use an instrument to open them and administer the medicine. About forty drops of the volatile caustic spirit were given to him in water, and applied to the wound; and the same dose repeated a few minutes after. In about half an hour he was perfectly recovered. On examining the part bitten, I could discover the marks of three fangs; two on one side, and one on the other; and, from the distance they were

asunder, I should judge it a large snake. More than ten minutes did not appear to have elapsed from the time of his being bitten till the medicine was administered. The wounds healed immediately, and he was able to attend to his duty the next day. Though the species of snake was not ascertained, yet I judge from the flow of saliva from the mouth, convulsive spasms of the jaws and throat, as well as from the marks of three fangs, that it must have been a cobra de capello; and, though I have met with five and six fangs of different sizes in snakes of that species, I never observed the marks of more than two having been applied in biting, in any other case which came within my knowledge.

CASE VI. In September 1786, a servant belonging to Captain S—, who was then at Benares, was bitten in the leg by a large cobra de capello. He saw the snake coming towards him, with his neck spread out in a very tremendous manner, and endeavoured to avoid him; but before he could get out of his way, the snake seized him by the leg, and secured his hold for some time, as if he had not been able to extricate his teeth. Application was immediately made to his master for a remedy, who sent to consult me; but before I arrived, had given him a quantity of sweet oil, which he drank. So soon as I saw him, I directed the usual dose of volatile caustic alkali to be given, which fortunately brought away the oil from his stomach, or it is probable that the stimulating effect of the volatile spirit would have been so much blunted by it, as to have become inefficacious: a second dose was immediately administered, and some time after a third. The man recovered in the course of a few hours. As oil is frequently administered as a remedy in the bite of snakes, I think it is necessary to caution against the use of it with the

the volatile alkali, as it blunts the stimulating quality of the spirit, and renders it useless.

Of the numerous species of snakes which I have met with, not above six were provided with poisonous fangs; though I have examined many which have been considered by the natives as dangerous, without being able to discover any thing noxious in them.

The following is an instance of the deleterious effect of the bite of a snake called by the natives krait, a species of the boa, which I have frequently met with in this part of the country.

CASE VII. On the 16th September, 1788, a man was brought to me who had been bitten by a snake, with the marks of two fangs on two of his toes; he was said to have been bitten above an hour before I saw him: he was perfectly sensible, but complained of great pain in the parts bitten, with an universal languor. I immediately gave him thirty drops of the volatile caustic alkali spirit in water, and applied some of it to the wounds; in a few minutes he became easier, and in about half an hour was carried away by his friends, with a perfect confidence in his recovery, without having taken a second dose of the medicine, which indeed did not appear to have been necessary: but, whether from the effect of the bite of the snake, or the motion of the dooly on which he was carried, I

know not; but he became sick at the stomach, threw up the medicine; and died in about a quarter of an hour after. The man said, that the snake came up to him while he was sitting on the ground; and that he put him away with his hand once, but that he turned about and bit him as described: the snake was brought to me, which I examined; it was about two feet and an half long, of a lightish brown colour on the back, a white belly, and annulated from end to end, with 208 abdominal, and forty-six tail scuta. I have met with several of them from thirteen inches to near three feet in length: it had two poisonous fangs in the upper jaw, which lay naked, with their points without the upper lip. It does not spread its neck like the cobra de capello, when enraged; but is very active and quick in its motion.

I have seen instances of persons bitten by snakes, who have been so long without assistance, that when they have been brought to me, they have not been able to swallow, from convulsions of the throat and fauces, which is, I observe, a constant symptom of the bite of the cobra de capello; and indeed I have had many persons brought to me who had been dead some time; but never knew an instance of the volatile caustic alkali failing in its effect, where the patient has been able to swallow it.

#### INSTANCES OF REMARKABLE TENURES OF LAND IN ENGLAND.

*Workſop.*—County of Nottingham. KING Henry VIII. in the 33d year of his reign, granted to George Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, the ſcite and precinct of the monastery of Workſop, with its appurtenances, in the county of Nottingham; to be held of the king in capite, by the ſervice of the tenth

part of a knight's fee;\* and by the royal ſervice of finding the king a *right hand glove* at his coronation, and to ſupport his *right arm*, that day, as long as he ſhould hold the ſcepter in his hand; and paying yearly 23l. 8s. 6½d.

At the coronation of King James II. this ſervice was claimed and all

lowed.

\* A knight's fee in the reign of Edward II. amounted to 20l.

lowed. And at the coronation of his present majesty George III. the same service was performed by the most honourable Charles, Marquis of Rockingham, as deputy to the Duke of Norfolk, lord of the manor of Workfop.

*Heydon.*—County of *Essex*.

At the coronation of King James II. the lord of the manor of Heydon in *Essex*, claimed to hold the *bason and ewer* to the king, by virtue of one moiety, and the *towel*, by virtue of another moiety of the said manor, when the king washes before dinner. Which claim was allowed as to the towel only.

*Bardolfe.*—County of *Surry*.

And at the coronation of the same king, the lord of the manor of Bardolfe in Addington, *Surry*, claimed to find a man to make a mess of *grout* in the king's kitchen; and therefore prayed that the king's master cook might perform that service. Which claim was allowed, and the said lord of the manor brought it up to the king's table.

*Liston.*—County of *Essex*.

In the 41st of Edward III. Joan, the wife of William Liston, held the manor of Overall in this parish, by the service of paying for, bringing in and placing of five *wafers* before the king as he sits at dinner upon the day of his coronation.

At the coronation of King James II. the lord of the manor of Liston in *Essex*, claimed to make *wafers* for the king and queen, and serve them up to their table; to have all the instruments of *silver* and other *metal*, used about the same, with the *linen* and certain proportions of ingredients, and other necessaries, and *liveries* for himself and two men. Which claim was allowed, and the service, with his consent, performed by the king's officers, and the fees compounded for at 30s.

At the coronation of their present majesties, William Campbell of Liston Hall, Esquire, as lord of this manor, claimed to do the same service, which was allowed; and the

king was pleased to appoint his son, William Henry Campbell, Esquire, to officiate as his deputy, who accordingly attended and presented the *wafers* to their majesties.

*Winterslew.*—County of *Wilts*.

John de Rockes holds the manor of Winterslew, in the county of *Wilts*, by the service, that when our lord the king should abide at Clarendon, he should come to the palace of the king there, and go into the butlery, and draw out of any vessel he should find in the said butlery, at his choice, as much wine as should be needful for making a *pitcher of claret*, which he should make at the king's charge; and that he should serve the king with a *cup*, and should have the vessel from whence he took the wine, with all the remainder of the wine left in the vessel, together with the cup from whence the king should drink that *claret*.

*Coperland, and Atterton.*—County of *Kent*.

Solomon Attefeld held land at Keperland and Atterton in the county of *Kent*, that as often as our lord the king would cross the sea, the said Solomon and his heirs ought to go along with him, to hold his *head* on the sea, if it was needful.

*Hemingston.*—County of *Suffolk*.

Rowland de Sarcere held one hundred and ten acres of land in Hemingston, in the county of *Suffolk*, by *serjeanty*; for which, on Christmas-day, every year, before our sovereign lord the king of England, he should perform, altogether, and once, a *leap*, a *puff*, and a *f—t*; (or, as Mr. Blount has it, he should *dance, puff up his cheeks, making therewith a sound, and let a crack*;) and, because it was an indecent service, therefore it was rented, says the record, at 26s. 8d. a year, at the king's exchequer.

One Baldwin, also, formerly held those lands by the same service; and was called by the nickname of Baldwin le Pettour.

*Ouahelle.*

*Ovenhelle.*—County of *Kent*.

Sir Osbert de Longchamp, knight, holds certain land which is called *Ovenhelle*, in the county of *Kent*, by the service of following our lord the king in his army into *Wales* forty days, at his own costs, with a horse of the price of five shillings, a sack of the price of sixpence, and with a needle to the same sack.

*Morton.*—County of *Essex*.

Henry de Averyng holds the manor of *Morton*, in the county of *Essex*, in *capite* of our lord the king, by the serjeanty of finding one man with a horse, of the price of ten shillings, and four horse-shoes, and one leather sack, and one iron jug, as often as it should happen for the king to go into *Wales* with his army, at his own charges for forty days.

*Lewe.*—County of *Oxon*.

Robert de Eylesford holds three yard-lands\* in *Lewe*, in the county of *Oxford*, of our lord the king, by the service of finding a man, with a bow and arrows, for forty days, at his own proper costs, whensoever it should happen that the king went into *Wales* with his army.

*Chetlington.*—County of *Salop*.

Roger Corbet holds the manor of *Chetlington*, in the county of *Salop*, of the king in *capite*, by the service of finding one footman in time of war, in the king's army in *Wales*, with one bow and three arrows, and one pale, and carrying with him one bacon or salted hog; and when he comes to the army, delivering to the king's marshal a moiety of the bacon: and thence the marshal was to deliver to him daily, some of that moiety for his dinner, so long as he stayed in the army; and he was to follow the army so long as that half of the bacon should last.

*Brineston.*—County of *Chester*, or *Dorset*.

The manor of *Brineston*, in the county of *Chester*, is held of the

king in *capite*, by the service of finding a man in the army of our lord the king, going into the parts of *Scotland*, barefoot, clothed with a shirt and breeches, having in one hand a bow without a string, and in the other an arrow unfeathered.

*Lofton.*—County of *Devon*.

William de Albemarle holds the manor of *Lofton*, by the serjeanty of finding for our lord the king, two arrows and one loaf of oat bread, when he should hunt in the forest of *Dartmore*.

*Brokenerst.*—County of *Hants*.

Peter Spileman paid a fine to the king for the lands which the said Peter held by the serjeanty of finding an esquire with a hambergell, or coat of mail, for forty days in *England*, and of finding litter for the king's bed, and hay for the king's palfrey, when the king should lie at *Brokenerst*, in the county of *Southampton*.

*Aylesbury.*—County of *Bucks*.

William, son of William de Alesbury, holds three yard-lands of our lord the king in *Alesbury*, in the county of *Bucks*, by the serjeanty of finding straw for the bed of our lord the king, and to straw his chamber, and by paying three eels to our lord the king, when he should come to *Alesbury* in winter. And also finding for the king, when he should come to *Alesbury* in summer, straw for his bed, and moreover grafs or rushes to strew his chamber, and also paying two green geese; and these services aforesaid, he was to perform thrice a year, if the king should happen to come three times to *Alesbury*, and not oftener.

*Bockhampton.*—County of *Berks*.

William Hoppehort holds half a yard-land in that town of our lord the king, by the service of keeping for the king six damsels, to wit, whores, at the cost of the king.—This was called pimp-tenure.

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\* Yard-land is a quantity of land, different, in different places, at *Wimbleton* in *Surry*, it is fifteen acres; in other counties it is twenty, in some twenty-four, and in others thirty or forty acres. *Bracton*, lib. ii, c. 10.



**OBSERVATIONS CONCERNING THE FLY-WEEVIL.**  
**WITH METHODS TO BE USED TO PREVENT THE DESTRUCTION OF**  
**GRAIN BY IT.**

BY COL. LANDON CARTER, OF SABINE-HALL, VIRGINIA.

FROM THE TRANSACTIONS OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

**I**T is not in my power to oblige you with the paper that I some years ago published in our *Gazettes*, upon this little destructive insect, called the moth or fly-weevil. However, as you are very earnest in your enquiries as to its particular nature, in order, if possible, to save so beneficial a commodity as wheat to America, which perhaps in a few years (unless such destructive insects do infest it) might become a kind of granary to most parts of Europe; I will from my diaries, put together those discoveries that led me to write that paper; and also what has since occurred to me in the attacks that our country has lately met with from those insects; for it is a certainty they continue amongst us, just as the season favours or not their propagation; although some will fancy they have their periods for coming and going away.

It is but something more than twenty-five years ago, that I heard any thing of such an insect that injured our wheat; but since then I have had frequent occasions to take great notice of it, and have had great reason to be very anxious to examine into the nature of that fly. It is with much propriety called a weevil, as it destroys the wheat even in our granaries, though it is not of the kind termed by naturalists the *curculio*, of which they have given a very long list; for it is not like a bug, it carries no cases for its wings; neither has it any feelers, with which the *curculio* is always distinguished; and perhaps (as I fancy it will turn out in the course of this letter that they never attack grain when hard) they really have no occasion for such feelers. For from the make of it, to my judgment it appears an im-

possibility that it should ever perforate into a hard grain, being furnished with nothing in nature, from the most minute examination by glasses, that could make such a perforation; and seems indeed a fly itself, consisting of nothing sensible to the slightest touch with the finger, nor to the eye, assisted with glasses, leaving only a little dry pale brown glossy dust, on being squeezed.

Having observed the wheat from my Northumberland quarters, never affected by it, but constantly found and perfect, through many years that I have been obliged to keep it for my own use, even in the same granary with weevil-eaten wheat; I was, and am still, inclined to conclude, the enemy is somehow lodged in the grain before it grows hard. It might not have been then too late to have had that better proof of this, which I have since been able to get, by discovering little eggs and maggots half formed into flies in the grain. But as I had nothing particular at first to lead me to such an examination, I waited till the next crop; and at all times, between day and dark in calm weather, during the several days of growth from the blooming time, till the livery or hardening state of the grain, I visited a field, if possible, to discover whether any of these flies appeared amongst the heads of the wheat during the soft state of the grain. Accordingly, in a pleasant evening, after the sun was down, and every thing serenely calm, I found the rascals extremely busy amongst my ears, and really very numerous. I immediately inclosed some of them in a light loose handkerchief; and by the magnifiers of my telescope, I took occasion minutely to examine them.

They are a pale brownish moth, with little trunks or bodies, some trifle shorter than their wings; and as some of their little bodies appeared bulging as if loaded, I applied the pressure of a fine straw upon them, and saw them squirt out, one after another, a number of little things which I took to be eggs, some more, some less; some emitted fifteen or twenty of them, and others appeared extremely lank in their little trunks, which I could not make discharge any thing like an egg. Whether they had done this in the field before, or were of the male kind, I could not tell, but from this discovery I find in my diary, many years ago, this conclusion, "that there need not be above two or three flies to an ear of corn, to lay eggs enough to destroy the greatest crop."

I must observe, at that time, that the bloom or farina of the ears had for some days disappeared, and the grain was nearly filling, though in a kind of milky state; and at such a time the husks or capsules are generally sufficiently open to admit the entrance of such flies; for I imagine, that as nature certainly intends that farina to impregnate the grain, and as that could only be done by its falling into the capsule, she must necessarily favour such a process by opening the mouths of those vessels.

Some agree with me, that the fly does not perforate the grain, but they say it lays its eggs upon the top of the husk, and when they are hatched into maggots, those eat through the husk into the grain; but I must think such a suggestion certainly liable to many objections, even in the pea, from whence such gentlemen have drawn their arguments: the egg of that bug, they tell us, is laid upon the back of the pod, next the pea; and from thence it hatches, and eats through the pod into the pea. The settling of such a point seems to be of little consequence, but to justify nature or providence in the wisdom as well as perfection of its modes. Can it then be pre-

sumed that an insect should, by particular instinct, be directed, to deposit its eggs for its species into a proper nidus, which should be also a pabulum for the young as that egg hatches, and yet that they should only be permitted to do this upon the outside of the coat of the nidus, from whence it may be liable to be removed by numberless accidents? For where one egg only is laid, the viscus matter that might surround it, cannot reasonably be thought a cement sufficient for a grain or husk in actual growth, as it might be with a number of eggs studded together on a leaf, or round a twig, according to the nature of some flies. Again, should even so small a viscus matter confine the egg to the outside of the pod or husk, against many accidents, yet what can we suppose will preserve the maggot, just hatched, from those accidents, when it lies on the outside, on the back of the pod, or husk? Besides, I must think I have discovered an egg as well as a maggot under the skin of the pea, without any visible lead to it, which must be a conviction it is not a maggot till it is hatched in the pea; therefore it seems reasonable that the parent of that bug perforates the pod, and then into the pea, in its tender and soft state.

I wish then such a suggestion may not have arisen from the callous speck that may be observed, with which nature closes up the wound made in the pod, by the parent of that bug. But how is this business of the worms eating through the husk of the wheat, and then the grain, till they come out in a fly, a little above the germ, at the other end of the grain, to be thus constantly performed, if the egg is only laid upon the end of the husk? For we clearly see those eggs do not all hatch at once; and after the wheat is thrashed out, in which operation, to be sure, it must endure a pretty rough usage (effect that business as you will) how can it run so many chances, without being dislodged

or destroyed? I may further ask, what should support the maggot from its hatching, till it gets through the husk into the grain? we see in most other species of insects, the worm, maggot or caterpillar, begins to eat as soon as it can twist about, and certainly the husk cannot be the first pabulum intended by nature for this maggot. Besides, from the observed tenderness of such maggots, if they are not well preserved from scorching sun beams, wind or rain, they must be subjected to various destructions, if the egg can be supposed to be hatched but in the grain; and it could not in any wise be the intention of nature, that they should be destroyed by their own misconduct; for we discover, in other instances, that her tenderness to flies, which propagate by eggs, directs them to deposit their eggs on the under side of leaves, that are a good security against the force of sun beams and weather; and as soon as they hatch, those leaves become the immediate food for those maggots, worms or caterpillars. The same arguments must hold good against the eggs being laid on the end of the grain; and it is no new thing to advance that hundreds of bushels have been carried very fair to every eye, from the barn or treading floor, into the granary; where, if thrown into a heap, the collected warmth vivifies the egg, and, in proportion to the growth of the maggot within the grain, the warmth is increased; and even whilst the middle or lower parts of the heap shall be alive, and ready to fly away, the upper parts shall be quite fair, and yet nevertheless hatch even at some distant day, with a proper warmth, if not perished by any coldness or other excess in weather, or by art: I say then, in such a length of time before hatching, the odds are greatly against the egg or worm's sticking to the grain till it hatches or eats in.

These things being considered, I thought that I had advanced far enough in investigating this point,

to be convinced the evil was effected by laying the egg in the grain, and in the soft state of it; and that those observations, said to be made of the egg being laid on the husk, or on the outside of the grain, were inaccurate, and espoused without a due consideration. But, in order to make it as clear to others as myself, I must here beg leave to assert, that I have distinctly seen with my glasses the egg in the grain of wheat, at the upper end of it, beneath the skin, and round it a small yellow stain, as if the milky substance had received a tincture from the egg; and as a further confirming circumstance that these eggs are laid in the soft state of the grain, I find in my diary, that many years ago I visited a field of one of my neighbours, who having been extremely late in his harvest, in very warm and temperate weather, had his wheat all eaten out; the flies were crawling out of the ears, and this whilst the wheat was standing.

Again, that the conviction may be as full as possible, it is an indisputable certainty, that this maggot eats from the upper end of the grain, as it stands in its husk, down to the lower end, and comes out in a fly a little above the germ. Now to suppose that these eggs are laid constantly upon that end of the grain, is to believe this fly capable of distinguishing such particular end, in every confused direction that the grain may be thrown into after it is thrashed out; and therefore the notion of the fly's laying its egg upon the outside of the grain, and that egg's never being dislodged, and the maggot's hatching upon that end, and eating into the grain, without being removed from that particular end, must be an absurdity of the first magnitude. In the husk indeed the fly might find that certain end of the grain, because in that it always lies in its proper direction, and it is reasonable to conclude that instinct would serve a fly for such a purpose; but then this cannot remove the ab-

furdity before taken notice of, that of its laying its egg upon that end of the grain constantly, as well before as after it is thrashed.

Nature, I may say, from the minuteness of her ways in effecting her intended purposes, is frequently out of the comprehension of man; and although his microscopical improvements upon vision have helped him to many discoveries, numerous are the things that seem still to remain as a secret to him. We can see in some flies their immediate changes from the first process of propagation, quite through their periods of life; and from thence we are inclined to pronounce a rational history of their continuance, brood after brood: yet in some flies, though we can carry them through all these several changes, there are certain phænomena not to be accounted for; particularly, how the length of time between their changes into flies, and their laying their eggs for the continuance of their species, is employed by them. This defect we generally supply by conjecture, that the time is spent in some torpid state: but there are some discoveries as to certain insects, that make it extremely difficult to suppose such a state; and if we regard what naturalists tell us of some of the moth flies, and indeed our own observations upon them, "that after they become a fly, they never attempt any kind of sustenance, but are seemingly solely employed in the business of fecundation, and the fe-

males in particular, in depositing their eggs for a new brood," we shall be puzzled to account how insects, that never eat after their change into a fly, can exist through so long a period as a great part of the fall, and generally of a long winter, till the period of the soft state of the new grain; and to what shelter they can retire from such a series of weather, generally too severe for such tender forms. We may imagine some intermediate brood, but what shall we fancy to be the nidus or food to bring them to this fly-weevil again, ready for that new period of softness in the succeeding crop of grain? From hence, perhaps, it is that some gentlemen have grown fond of the opinion, of their eating out of one grain, and then flying to another grain, and laying their eggs upon the ends of them, for a new brood; but as even weevil-eaten wheat is generally consumed one way or another, long before the kerning of the new crop, the difficulty (by such a supposition) will have many long months to contend with. Therefore others tell us, they lie about in barns, &c. However, the standing crop eaten up, before taken notice of, is with me sufficient to confute such a solution of that difficulty: and I might add my own strong fumigations of my barn and granary (though enough to destroy a world of insects) have been unsuccessful, with respect to this fly-weevil, in the new crop.

[To be concluded in our next.]

#### ON THE RING OF SATURN, AND THE ROTATION OF THE FIFTH SATELLITE UPON ITS AXIS.

BY WILLIAM HERSCHEL, LL.D. F.R.S.

[Continued from Page 332.]

**I**N my frequent observations of the Saturnian system, I remarked, that the 5th satellite is subject to a change of brightness. This having been noticed before by other observers, I did not at first pay so

much attention to it as I soon afterwards found this circumstance deserved. When I saw this satellite always assume the same brightness in the same part of its orbit, and perceived that its change was regular

lar and periodical, it occurred to me very naturally, that the cause of this phænomenon could be no other than a rotation upon its axis. It became necessary therefore to find out a method to determine the time of this rotation.

In order to investigate this, I pursued the satelkite with great attention, and marked all its changes of apparent brightness. The result of many observations is as follows. The light of the satelkite is in full splendour during the time it runs through that part of its orbit which is between 68 and 129 degrees past the inferior conjunction. In passing through this arch it does not fall above one magnitude short of the brightness of the 4th satelkite. On the contrary, from about 7 degrees past the opposition till towards the inferior conjunction, it is not only less bright than the 3d, but hardly, if at all, exceeds the 2d, or even the 1st satelkite; provided the latter be then about its greatest elongation, where its light is least impeded by the brightness of the planet. Upon the whole, the alteration seems to amount to what among the fixed stars, and with the naked eye, would be called a change from the 5th to the 2d, and from the 2d to the 5th magnitude.

Having thus observed this satelkite, for many of its revolutions round the primary planet, to lose and regain its light regularly, it is evident that the time of its rotation on its axis cannot differ much from that of its revolution round Saturn. I think myself sufficiently authorized to make this conclusion, notwithstanding it may have happened sometimes that the light of the satelkite has suffered an occasional change of short duration, from other causes; for the same reason that we should certainly allow those who first saw the spots in the sun to be in the right to assign the period of its rotation nearly, when they perceived that the same spot made several revolutions, notwithstanding that spot

might afterwards vanish. But I may go farther, and ascertain upon sufficient grounds, that this satelkite turns once upon its axis, exactly in the time it performs one revolution round its primary planet. This degree of accuracy is obtained by taking in the observations of M. Cassini, which are related in the *Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences*, 1705, page 121; where we find it mentioned, that "the 5th satelkite of Saturn disappears regularly for about one half of its revolution, when it is to the east of Saturn." The same memoir contains also a conjecture of this satelkite's rotation upon its axis; but this surmise is contradicted as premature, in 1707, page 96; where we find the following paragraph. "M. Cassini gives an example of the danger there is in these sort of determinations, that are made too hastily. The 5th satelkite of Saturn, of which we have said, in the history of 1705, page 121, that it grew invisible, in the eastern half of the circle it describes about Saturn, began, in the month of September 1705, to be there visible, as well as in the western half, where it always was so. Hence the conjectures which we have related cease to be well founded."

Now, without determining whether the satelkite, from some cause or other, ceased to change its brightness, or whether its phænomena were not sufficiently followed to come to a proper conclusion, I think that with the assistance of observations at so great a distance of time as those of M. Cassini, I may sufficiently establish the period of this satelkite's rotation. For since I have traced the regular, and periodical change of light, through more than ten revolutions, and find them, in all appearance, to be contemporary with its return about Saturn, it leads us directly to a strong presumption that its rotation upon its axis, like that of our moon, strictly coincides with its revolution round

round its primary planet; and the observations of M. Cassini completely confirm this conclusion. For, had he seen the satellite brightest in any other part of its orbit, our observations would not have agreed together; but since the year 1705, the satellite has made about 397 revolutions: and yet the phenomena described by Cassini answer now as exactly to my own observations, as the spots in our moon, viewed in Cassini's time, answer to those we now observe.

If it should be objected, that the 5th satellite of Saturn has not been continually observed, and that consequently these appearances might either not happen at all, or fall upon different places in its orbit; I answer, that a period of more than ten revolutions,\* which I have included, is already a strong argument that no such change has taken place; for if the satellite had but made a single rotation upon its axis more or less than it has made revolutions round Saturn, the change must amount to nearly one degree per revolution; that is, to about ten degrees during the time of my taking notice of it; which is a quantity I think I might have perceived. However, to remove all doubt, we have some valuable observations of M. Bernard, who in the year 1787, also found the 5th satellite of Saturn subject to the same change of light that M. Cassini had observed.\* Now, by joining those to mine, we have a short period of near 20 revolutions that agree together, so as to preclude all doubt of any intermediate change; and therefore we cannot be liable to err, when we extend this period to all the 397 revolutions since Cassini's time, and by that means ascertain that the 5th satellite of Saturn turns upon its axis, once in 79 days, 7 hours, and 47 minutes.

I cannot help reflecting, with some pleasure, on the discovery of an analogy, which shews that a certain, uniform plan is carried on among the secondaries of our solar system; and we may conjecture, that probably most of the moons of all the planets are governed by the same law; especially if it be founded on such a construction of the figure of the secondaries, as makes them more ponderous towards their primary planets. For, if even the 5th satellite of Saturn, which is at so great a distance from its planet, is affected by such a law, of course the other satellites are not very likely to have escaped its influence.

From the considerable change in the brightness of the 5th satellite of Saturn, we may be certain that some part of its surface, and this by far the largest, reflects much less light than the rest; and, from the points of its orbit in which it appears brightest to us, we conclude that neither the darkest nor brightest side of the satellite is turned towards the planet, but partly one and partly the other; though probably rather less of the bright side.

The great regularity of this change of brightness seems to point out another resemblance of this satellite with our moon. It is well known that we see the spots of the moon pretty nearly of the same brightness, so as not to be overcast in a very strong degree by dense clouds to disfigure them, and therefore have great reason to surmise that her atmosphere is extremely rare; which indeed we also know from other principles: In like manner, on account of the uninterrupted changes in the brightness of the 5th satellite of Saturn, we may suppose that it also partakes of a similar fate with respect to its atmosphere, which is probably as rare as that of our moon.

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\* See Mémoires de l'Académie, 1786, page 378.



## OBSERVATIONS ON BEES.

BY J. HUNTER, F. R. S.

[ *Continued from Page 336.* ]

SO far we have set the colony in motion. The materials of their dwelling, or comb, which is the wax, is the next consideration, with the mode of forming, preparing, or disposing of it. In giving a totally new account of the wax, I shall first show it can hardly be what it has been supposed to be. First, I shall observe that the materials, as they are found composing the comb, are not to be found in the same state (as a composition) in any vegetable, where they have been supposed to be got. The substance brought in on their legs, which is the farina of the flowers of plants, is, in common, I believe, imagined to be the materials of which the wax is made, for it is called by most the wax: but it is the farina, for it is always of the same colour as the farina of the flower where they are gathering; and indeed we see them gathering it, and we also see them covered almost all over with it, like a dust; nevertheless, it has been supposed to be the wax, or that the wax was extracted from it. Reaumur is of this opinion. I made several experiments to see if there was such a quantity of oil in it, as would account for the quantity of wax to be formed, and to learn if it was composed of oil. I held it near the candle; it burnt, but did not smell like wax, and had the same smell, when burning, as farina when it was burnt. I observed that this substance was of different colours on different bees, but always of the same colour on both legs of the same bee; whereas new made comb was all of one colour. I observed, that it was gathered with more avidity for old hives, where the comb is complete, than for those hives where it is only begun, which we could hardly conceive if it was the mate-

rials of wax: also we may observe that at the very beginning of a hive, the bees seldom bring in any substance on their legs for two or three days, and after that the farina gatherers begin to increase; for now some cells are formed to hold it as a store, and some eggs are laid, which when hatched will require this substance as food, and which will be ready when the weather is wet. I have also observed, that when the weather has either been so cold, or so wet, in June, as to hinder a young swarm from going abroad, they have yet in that time formed as much new comb, as they did in the same time when the weather was such as allowed them to go abroad. I have seen them bring it in about the latter end of March, and have observed, in glass hives, the bees with the farina on their legs, and have seen them disposing of it, as will be described hereafter.

The wax is formed by the bees themselves; it may be called an external secretion of oil, and I have found that it is formed between each scale of the under side of the belly. When I first observed this substance, in my examination of the working bee, I was at a loss to say what it was: I asked myself if it was new scales forming, and whether they cast the old, as the lobster, &c. does? but it was to be found only between the scales, on the lower side of the belly. On examining the bees through glass hives, while they were climbing up the glass, I could see that most of them had this substance, for it looked as if the lower, or posterior edge of the scale, was double, or that there were double scales; but I perceived it was loose, not attached. Finding that the substance brought in on their legs

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was farina, intended, as appeared from every circumstance, to be the food of the maggot, and not to make wax; and not having yet perceived any thing that could give me the least idea of wax; I conceived these scales might be it, at least I thought it necessary to investigate them. I therefore took several on the point of a needle, and held them to a candle, where they melted, and immediately formed themselves into a round globe; upon which I no longer doubted but this was the wax, which opinion was confirmed to me by not finding those scales but in the building season. In the bottom of the hive we see a good many of the scales lying loose, some pretty perfect, others in pieces. I have endeavoured to catch them, either taking this matter out of themselves, from between the scales of the abdomen, or from one another, but never could satisfy myself in this respect: however, I once caught a bee examining between the scales of the belly of another, but I could not find that it took any thing from between. We very often see some of the bees wagging their belly, as if tickled, running round, and to and fro, for only a little way, followed by one or two other bees, as if examining them. I conceived they were probably shaking out the scales of wax, and that the others were ready upon the watch to catch them, but I could not absolutely determine what they did. It is with these scales that they form the cells called the comb, but perhaps not entirely, for, I believe, they mix farina with it; however, this only occasionally, when probably the secretion is not in great plenty. I have some reason to think that where no other substance is introduced, the thickness of the scale is the same with that of the sides of the comb; if so, then a comb may be no more than a number of these united; but a great deal of the comb seems to be too thick for this, and, indeed, would appear to be a mix-

ture, similar to the covering of the chrysalis. The wax naturally is white, but when melted from the comb at large, it is yellow. I apprehended this might arise from its being stained with honey, the excrement of the maggots, and with the bee-bread. I steeped some white comb in honey, boiled some with farina, as also with old comb, but I could not say that it was made yellower. Wax, by bleaching, is brought back to its natural colour, which is also a proof that its colour is derived from some mixture. I have reason to believe that they take the old comb, when either broken down, or by any accident rendered useless, and employ it again; but this can only be with combs that have had no bees hatched in them, for the wax cannot be separated from the silk afterwards. Reaumur supposed that they new worked up the old materials, because he found the covering of the chrysalis of a yellower colour than the other parts of the new comb; but this is always so, whether they have old yellow comb to work up, or not, as will be shewn.

The bees who gather the farina, also form the wax, for I found it between their scales.

The cells, or rather the congeries of cells, which compose the comb, may be said to form perpendicular plates, or partitions, which extend from top to bottom of the cavity in which they build them, and from side to side. They always begin at the top, or roof of the vault, in which they build, and work downwards; but if the upper part of this vault, to which their combs are fixed, is removed, and a dome is put over, they begin at the upper edge of the old comb, and work up into the new cavity at the top. They generally may be guided as to the direction of their new plates of comb, by forming ridges at top, to which they begin to attach their comb. In a long hive, if these ridges are longitudinal, their plates  
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of comb will be longitudinal; if placed transverse, so will be the plates; and if oblique, the plates of comb will be oblique. Each plate consists of a double set of cells, whose bottoms form the partition between each set. The plates themselves are not very regularly arranged, not forming a regular plane where they might have done so; but are often adapted to the situation, or shape of the cavity in which they are built. The bees do not endeavour to shape their cavity to their work, as the wasps do, nor are the cells of equal depths, also fitting them to their situation; but as the breeding cells must all be of a given depth, they reserve a sufficient number for breeding in, and they put the honey into the others, as also into the shallow ones. The attachment of the comb round the cavity is not continued, but interrupted, so as to form passages; there are also passages in the middle of the plates, especially if there be a cross stick to support the comb; these allow of bees to go across from plate to plate. The substance which they use for attaching their combs to surrounding parts is not the same as the common wax; it is softer and tougher, a good deal like the substance with which they cover in their chrysalis, or the humble bee surrounds her eggs. It is probably a mixture of wax with farina. The cells are placed nearly horizontally, but not exactly so; the mouth raised a little, which probably may be to retain the honey the better; however this rule is not strictly observed, for often they are horizontal, and towards the lower edge of a plane of comb they are often declining. The first combs that a hive forms are the smallest, and much neater than the last, or lowermost. Their sides, or partitions between cell and cell, are much thinner, and the hexagon is much more perfect. The wax is purer, being probably little else but wax, and it is more brittle. The lower combs are considerably larger, and

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contain much more wax, or perhaps more properly, more materials; and the cells are at such distances as to allow them to be of a round figure: the wax is softer, and there is something mixed with it. I have observed that the cells are not all of equal size, some being a degree larger than the others; and that the small are the first formed, and of course at the upper part, where the bees begin, and the larger are nearer the lower part of the comb, or last made: however, in hives of particular construction, where the bees may begin to work at one end, and can work both down, and towards the other end, we often find the larger cells both on the lower part of the combs, and also at the opposite end. These are formed for the males to be bred in; and in the hornets and wasps combs, there are larger cells for the queens to be bred in: these are also formed in the lower tier, and the last formed.

The first comb made in a hive, is all of one colour, viz. almost white; but it is not so white towards the end of the season, having then more of a yellow cast.

*Of the Royal Cell.*

There is a cell, which is called the Royal Cell, often three or four of them, sometimes more; I have seen eleven, and even thirteen in the same hive; commonly they are placed on the edge of one or more of the combs, but often on the side of a comb; however, not in the center, along with the other cells, like a large one placed among the others, but often against the mouths of the cells, and projecting out beyond the common surface of the comb; but most of them are formed from the edge of the comb, which terminates in one of these cells. The royal cell is much wider than the others, but seldom so deep: its mouth is round, and appears to be the largest half of an oval in depth, and is declining downwards, instead of being horizontal, or lateral. The materials

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rials of which it is composed are softer than common wax, rather like the last mentioned, or those of which the lower edge of the plate of comb is made, or with which the bees cover the chrysalis: they have very little wax in their composition, not one third, the rest I conceive to be farina.

This is supposed to be the cell in which the queen is bred, but I have reason to believe that this is only imagination: for, first, it is too large, and, moreover, seldom so deep as the large cells in which the males are bred; whereas, if proportioned to the length of the queen, it ought to be deeper, for length of body is her greatest difference. In the second place, its mouth is placed downwards; and in the third place, it is never lined with the silken covering of the chrysalis, similar to the cells of the males and labourers; nor do we find excrement at the bottom of it. The number of these cells is very different, in different hives. I think I have seen hives without any, and I have seen them with eleven or twelve, sometimes more. I have examined them at all times through the summer, but never found any alteration in them.

The comb seems at first to be formed for propagation, and the reception of honey to be only a secondary use; for if the bees lose their queen, they make no combs; and the wasp, hornet, &c. make combs, although they collect no honey; and the humble bee collects honey, and deposits it in cells she never made.

I shall not consider the bee as an excellent mathematician, capable of making exact forms, and having reasoned upon the best shape of the cell for capacity, so that the greatest number might be put into the smallest space (for the hornet and the wasp are much more correct, although not seemingly under the same necessity, as they collect nothing to occupy their cells); because, although the bee is pretty perfect in these respects, yet it is very incorrect in others, in

the formation of the comb: nor shall I consider these animals as forming comb of certain shape and size, from mere mechanical necessity, as from working round themselves; for such a mould would not form cells of different sizes, much less could wasps be guided by the same principle, as their cells are of very different sizes, and the first by much too small for the queen wasp to have worked round herself: but I shall consider the whole as an instinctive principle, in which the animal has no power of variation, or choice, but such as rises from what may be called external necessity. The cell has in common six sides, but this is most correct in those first formed; and their bottom is commonly composed of those sides, or planes, two of the sides making one; and they generally fall in between the bottoms of three cells of the opposite side; but this is not regular, it is only to be found where there is no external interruption.

I have already observed, that the last formed cells in the season are not so well made: that their partitions are thicker, and more of a yellow colour: this arises, I imagine, from the wax being less pure, having more alloy in it; and therefore, not being so strong, more of it is required. The bees would appear to reserve many of their cells for honey, and those are mostly at the upper part. In old hives, of several years standing, I have found the upper part of the comb free from the consequences of having bred, such as the silk lining, and the excrement of the maggots at the bottom; while the lower part, for probably more than one half of the plane of cells, shewed strong marks of having contained many broods of young bees. In such the lining of silk is thick at the sides, composed of many laminae; and in many, the bottom is half filled up with excrement; and I observed at such parts, the comb was thickest at its mouth, which inclines me to think, that when a cell becomes

comes shallow, by the bottom being in some degree filled up, the bees then add to its mouth. Such also they seem to reserve principally for

the bee-bread; so that to lay up a greater store of honey is an object to them,

[ *To be continued.* ]

## HISTORY OF THE HORSE IN ENGLAND.

BY THE LATE RICHARD BERENGER, ESQ.

[ *Continued from Page 343.* ]

WHEN Charles II. was restored, the arts, sciences and pleasures followed in his train, and were restored to a nation, from which the troubles of the preceding reign, and of Cromwell's Interregnum, had driven them away. This pleasure-loving monarch greatly encouraged that branch of riding, which is called racing. He gave public rewards and prizes, and delighted to be a witness of the contests of the course; and when resident at Windsor, had races run at Datchet Mead; but the most distinguished spot for these trials was Newmarket, which, from the fitness of the ground, was first chosen, and has ever since been sacred to these sports, which are still as superior in England, as those of Olympia are said to have been in Greece.

The glory of this place now burst out in the brightest splendor. The king used to honour the races with his presence, and established an house for his reception. He condescended so far as to be a candidate, kept and entered horses in his own name, and by his attention and generosity, added dignity, importance, and lustre to the institution, over which he presided. Bells, the ancient rewards of swiftness, were now no longer given, but in their stead a silver bowl or cup, of the value of one hundred guineas. Upon this royal gift, the exploits of the successful horse, and his pedigree, were generally engraved, to publish and perpetuate his fame; and several

of these trophies are now in the possession of different people. The custom of keeping race horses at Newmarket is still continued by the successors of this king; but the sum of one hundred guineas is given in the room of the silver bowl.\* Charles is represented by the duke of Newcastle, as having had much knowledge in horses, and as an experienced and able rider.† In his reign the act of Henry VII. before recited, for prohibiting the exportation of horses, was repealed, and another passed, by which horses were permitted to be sent abroad, upon paying a duty of five shillings each.

James the Second has the honourable testimony of the above-mentioned duke of Newcastle, as being a good horseman; but his reign was too unquiet and short, to have allowed him to discover his sentiments and inclinations upon the subject of horses—all that is known farther of him, is, that he loved hunting, and for that purpose preferred English horses, of which he had several always in his stables in France; and expressed a peculiar satisfaction in having them, and that at a time, and in a situation, in which it is natural to think, they were rather likely to have given him uneasiness and mortification, than to have afforded him pleasure.

When William III. was advanced to the throne, he not only added to the plates given to different places in the kingdom, but rendered a more necessary and important service to

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\* It is difficult to reconcile this character with an account of Charles given in Monconny's Travels. "Je passai par les écuries du roy, qui sont fort mal garnies, aussi n'aime-t'il point les chevaux du manege. Tom. 2. p. 35.

† Some allowance is due to the duke of Newcastle from his connection and situation.

the nation; he founded an academy for riding, and invited from France a very capable and experienced horseman, Major Foubert, to preside over it.

It is to be presumed, that this prince must have observed that a general disregard to the art, and almost a total ignorance of its principles prevailed at this time throughout the nation; and he no sooner was sensible of the disease, than he applied the remedy, and did, at least in his prudent and generous intentions, what so long had been wanting in the plan of his predecessors, to render it consistent and effectual. It is astonishing to think how this work, so immediately necessary, could have been deferred so long; and that while rewards were given, public trials appointed, and laws enacted, to promote an useful and generous breed of horses, no step should have been taken on the other hand to qualify and instruct the youth of the kingdom in the superior art of riding: for the getting upon the back of an horse, to be conveyed from one place to another, without knowing what the animal is enabled by nature, art, and practice to perform, is not riding: the knowledge and utility of which consists in being able to discern, and dexterous to employ the means by which the horse may be brought to execute what the rider requires of him, with propriety, readiness, and safety; and this knowledge in the man, and obedience in the horse, like soul and body, should be so intimately connected, as to form *one perfect whole*; this union being so indispensibly necessary, that where it is not, there is no meaning between the man and horse, they talk different languages, and all is confusion.—While many and fatal mischiefs may ensue; the man may be wedged in the timber which he strives to rend, and fall the victim of his own ignorance and rashness.

Queen Anne continued the bounty of her predecessors, with the ad-

dition of several plates. Her royal consort George, prince of Denmark, is said to have been remarkably fond of horse-races, and to have obtained from the queen the grants of several plates, allotted to different places. The author of a work in 12mo. relating to the antiquity and progress of horse-races, &c. printed in the year 1769, says, that in the reign of this princess, gentlemen bred their horses so fine, for the sake of speed only, that they became quite useless, when a public spirited gentleman observing this error, left thirteen hundred guineas, for thirteen plates, to be run for at such places as the crown should appoint, whence they were called royal plates; upon condition, that each horse should carry twelve stones weight, the best of three heats over a four mile course: no authority, however, is cited to support this account, and the registers of the lord chamberlains, at the jewel-office, and of the king's master of the horse, evince the contrary, and prove the plates to be solely the royal bounty.

George the First, towards the end of his reign, discontinued the plates, and gave the sum of one hundred guineas in their room. The royal bounty, conveyed in this shape, was certainly more judiciously conferred, if considered in a public and national light, inasmuch as it was more useful and efficacious; for, notwithstanding that a nobleman, or person of fortune, might eye the cup upon his side-board with a conscious pride and pleasure, the guineas will speak more persuasively to the private person and farmer, as they will help at least to repay the expences of keeping the horse which won them; and answer many other necessary purposes.

In the thirteenth year of his late majesty, an act was passed for the suppression of races by poneyes, and other small and weak horses; by which all matches for any prize under the value of fifty pounds are forbid;



forbid; and by which each horse entered to run, if five years old, is obliged to carry ten stone; if six, eleven; and if seven, twelve.—This statute had a two-fold intention, and was framed not only to prevent the encouragement of a vile and paltry breed of horses, but likewise to remove all temptation from the lower class of people, who constantly attend these races, to the great loss of time, and hindrance of labour; and whose behaviour still calls for stricter regulations, to curb their licentiousness, and correct their manners.

The Scotch nation, from early times, possessed a breed of horses which they much esteemed, and which were held so much in repute by other countries, that it became necessary to hinder their exportation, by laws and restrictions. By an act of parliament of James the First, 2d parliament, chap. 31, no horse that was not past three years old could be sold out of the kingdom, under pain of forfeiture to the king. By another act of the first parliament of James the Sixth, chap. 22, it was forbid to transport any horse out of the realm, upon pain of forfeiture to the king of such horse, and the ship and goods of the transporter. The preface of this act particularly mentions transporting of horses to Bourdeaux, from which place there was a great demand, as well as from other parts, so as to make a scarcity and dearth.

In the tenth parliament of James the Third, a just and wise act was passed, whereby every farrier who shod an horse, and pricked his foot, through ignorance or drunkenness, was obliged to deposit the price of the horse till he was sound, and furnish the owner with another: and, in case the horse could not be cured, the farrier was obliged to pay the price, and indemnify the injured owner.—By another act of James the Sixth, parl. 7, chap. 122, it is set forth, that among other occasions of dearth of victuals, which

then prevailed in the realm, there was one particularly hurtful, which was the keeping of horses all the summer upon hard meat. used commonly by persons of mean estate, cowpers, (dealers) with intention to make merchandize of the said horses, being for the most part small nags, and not horses of service, it is ordained that no subject, not being an earl, prelate, lord, or great baron, or any of his highness's privy-council, session, or landed gentleman, that can spend of his own one thousand marks of yearly rent, all charges deducted, shall keep any sort of horses at hard meat yearly, longer than the 15th day of May, nor take them from grass, before the 15th of October, under the pain of forfeiting the said horses, or paying the value of them to the king. By an act likewise of the said king, to correct the too great addition to horse-races, and the laying large wagers upon horses, it is ordained, that if any man win above the sum of one hundred marks, the surplus shall be given to the poor; and if the collector, sheriff, or justices, are empowered to prosecute for the recovery of the same, and in case of failure or neglect so to do, are liable to be informed against, and pay double thereof, half to the informer, and half to the poor.

This kingdom, at present, encourage a fleet breed of horses, and the nobility and gentry have many foreign, and other stallions of great value, in their possession, with which they cultivate the breed, and improve it with great knowledge and success. Like the English, they are fond of racing, and have a celebrated course at Leith, which is honoured with a royal plate, given by his present majesty.

The wisdom and generosity likewise of the nobility and gentry have lately erected a riding-house in the city of Edinburgh at their own expence, and fixed a salary upon the person who is appointed to direct it. This kingdom has been famous for breeding

breeding a peculiar sort of horses called galloways.

Tradition reports that this kind of horses are sprung from some Spanish stallions, which swam on shore from some of the ships of the famous Spanish armada, which were wrecked on the coast, and coupling with the mares of the country, peopled the kingdom with their posterity. They were much esteemed, and of a midling size, strong, active, nervous, and hardy, and were called galloways, from being first known in the county which bears that name. They are commended by the duke of Newcastle. From the care and attention paid at present to the culture of horses in this nation, it is to be expected that it will soon be able to send forth numbers of valuable and generous breeds, destined to a variety of purposes, and equal to all: the country being very capable of answering the wishes of the judicious breeder, who need only remember, that colts require to be well nourished in winter, and sheltered from the severity of a rigorous and changeable sky.

The kingdom of Ireland has, for

[ *To be continued.* ]

## HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH MONEY.

[ *Continued from Page 355.* ]

**HENRY VIII.** The state of this king's money was like his mind and humour, very changeable and uncertain. In the beginning of his reign his silver coins were as like his father's as was possible, the inscription (except the change of **VII** and **VIII**) the same, his image half-faced, the money good sterling, &c. The coins of this king are sovereigns, ryals, half sovereigns, angels, George-nobles, half and quarter angels, forty-penny pieces, crowns and half crowns, of gold;

many centuries, boasted a race of horses called hobbies, much admired and valued for their easy paces, and other pleasing, useful, and agreeable qualities; \* of a midling size, strong, nimble, well-moulded and hardy:—many sorts of good and serviceable horses are bred in this kingdom, which answer the pleasurable and necessary purposes of life perfectly well, and are capable of mounting the light troops very properly. The nobility and persons of fortune have stallions of great reputation belonging to them; but chuse to breed for the turf, in preference to other purposes; for which, perhaps, their country is not so well qualified. from the moisture of the atmosphere, occasioned by excess of rain, and other causes, which hinder it from imparting that elastic force, and clearness of wind, so necessary for the exertion and continuation of extraordinary speed; and which are solely the gifts of a dry soil, and an air more pure and refined. This country, nevertheless, is capable of producing fine and noble horses, if seconded by a judicious care, and other requisites, which its inhabitants are very able to bestow.

and silver coins, testoons, groats, half groats, sterlings, halfpence, farthings. To these I may add, crown pieces of silver, this king being the first that coined such pieces, as appears by one in the museum of the Earl of Pembroke.

Of the testoons or shillings, there were two sorts: that of fine silver exhibits his majesty half-faced, whereof one has *Civitas Eboraci* on the reverse, instead of the more ordinary *POSVI*, &c. And here let it be observed, that even his lesser pieces

\* Camden says they are very excellent, and go not as other horses do, but pace very softly and easily. Camden's Transl. by Gibson, Vol. II. p. 1312.

pieces (not minted at London) generally omit that inscription, and have only the name of the place (as CIVITAS CANTOR. TVRNACI.) where they were coined. The other shilling, called the broad-faced shilling, of a baser alloy, HENRIC. VIII. or 8. DI. GRA. AGL. FRA. Z. HIB. REX. which new style was continued by his successors, till king James I. instead of *Anglia*, put in *Magna Britannia*, which has been used ever since. Reverse, POSVI, &c. a rose crowned in place of the arms, with HR crowned.

The groat has his head with the side face, HENRIC. VIII. DI. G. R. AGL. Z. FRANC. Reverse, the arms and *Pofui*; another of a baser metal has his head full faced, HENRIC. 8. DI. G. ANGL. FRA. Z. HIB. REX. Upon the coining of the shillings (in the 34th year of his reign) his money had only a fifth part alloy, but two years after it was half copper, and in the 37th year only one third silver: besides the mints at London, was one at York with T. W. and the cardinal's hat, which was afterwards made an article of Woolsey's impeachment; others have WA, coined in the bishops mint at Canterbury, and T. C. His pence and halfpence give him seated on a throne with globe and scepter, H. D. G. ROSA. SINE. SPINA. The Durham groat the like, and reverse, CIVITAS. DURHAM. with C. D. or B. by the arms, perhaps for Christopher Bainbrige, bishop of Durham, 1507. Another has HENRIC. VIII. D. G. R. AGL. Z. an arched crown over the arms of France and England; reverse, FRANCE. DOMINVS HIBERNIE. a crowned harp between the letter H and R crowned. Another, after he assumed the title of king of Ireland, AN. 1541. HENRIC. VIII. DI. GRACIA. ANGLIE. Reverse, FRANCIE. ET. HIBERNIE. REX. the harp and arms as the former, but worse money. Another piece, Mr. Thoresby gives us, has the arms of France and

England quarterly, HONI. SOIT. QUI. MAL. Y. PENSE. Reverse, DIEV. ET. MON. DROIT. 1541. the rose and crown with H. R. This piece is as broad as the testoon, but thin, and seems only lead; the farthing with the portcullice on one side, according to the act of parliament for the regulation of the mints, particular care being taken that all farthings (not heretofore distinguished from halfpence) should have the portcullice on one side, and the cross and pellets on the other.

Of the very bad money in the 36th year, half brass and half silver, though it weighs but one pennyweight ten grains, inscribed HENRIC. 8. D. G. AGL. FRA. Z. HIB. REX. King's head full faced; the next year it was still further debased, eight ounces of alloy to four of silver; these likewise exhibit the king's head full faced, and reverse, CIVITAS. LONDON. round the arms; there is likewise a halfpenny with the same inscription, and king's head full faced; reverse, the cross and pellets.

The angel of this king is like his father's; a half angel has this inscription, reverse, CRVX. AVE. SPES VNICA. His sovereign, as in Speed, HENRIC. 8. D. G. AGL. FRANCIE. Z. HIB. REX. the king in his robes crowned upon his throne with the scepter and ball: reverse, the arms of France and England quarterly, supported by a lion and dragon, IHS. AVTEM. TRANSIENS. PER. MED. ILLOR. IBAT. the crown and half-crown of gold, a large rose and crown betwixt H. I. crowned, HENRIC. VIII. RVTLANS. ROSA. SIE. SPINA. Reverse, the arms of France and England quartered under a crown, and H. I. DEI. G. R. AGLIE. Z. FRA. DNS. HYBERNIE. but for the better ascertaining the different standard and value, I shall set down the different indentures according to Mr. Lowndes.

By indenture, 1st, 23d, and 25th years.

Apound of gold old standard into

24 Sovereigns, at	22s. 6d.
48 Ryals - - -	11 3
72 Angels - - -	7 6
81 George-nobles -	6 8
144 Half-angels -	3 9
162 Forty-pieces -	3 4
Twenty-two car. fine, two allay.	
100½ Crowns D. R.	5s. 0d.
201 Half-crowns -	2 6

Silver. A pound old standard into

135 Groats.	270 Half-groats.	540
Sterlings.	1080 Half-pence.	2160
Farthings.		

Indenture, 34th year.

Twenty-two car. fine, one allay.

The pound coined into

28 Sovereigns, at -	20s. 0d.
Half ditto - - -	10 0
Angels - - -	8 0
Angelets - - -	4 0
Quarter ditto -	2 0

Silver. Ten ounces fine, two allay.

48 Testoons, groats, half-groats, pence, half-pence, farthings.

By this table, it appears, the angel, which in the preceding reigns was current at 6s. 8d. was raised in this reign to 7s. 6d. so that when we meet with the word angel, or any other gold coin, we must observe what reign it was in, before we can understand exactly what the sum amounts to.

Indenture, 36th year, twenty-two car. fine, and two allay.

30 Sovereigns, at -	20s. 0d.
60 Half-ditto - -	10 0
120 Crowns - -	5 0
240 Half-crowns -	2 6

Silver, six ounces fine and six allay, into forty eight shillings by tale, viz. Testoons, groats, half-groats, pence, half-pence and farthings.

The same in the 37th year, but debased to twenty carraets fine, and two carraets allay.

Silver. Debased to four ounces fine, and eight ounces allay in forty shillings by tale, which reduced the pound weight of gold to thirty-six pound, and silver to seven pound four shillings.

Edward VI. The silver monies of this prince, who was the first of the name that added the number to it, are directly contrary to those of his father; the fine money of Henry VIII. having the half face, and his had the full, whereas King Edward's had the half, and his good the full; of the base there are two sorts of testoons no better than his father's in the intrinsic value of the metal, and much inferior in bulk, which were coined in his 3d and 5th years, both which give him half faced, with his titles as on the purer money, but they differ in the legend on the reverse, the one bearing TIMOR DOMINI EST, FONS VITÆ. MDXLVIII. and the other INIMICIS EIVS INDVAM, CONFUSIONE. It was on the former of these that Bishop Latimer remarked, that it was such a pretty little shilling, that he had like to have put it away for an old groat; the lesser pieces of his bad money have the place of coinage on the reverse. In the latter end of his first year, both these and those of King Henry were cried down, first from twelve pence to nine pence, and (about a month after) to six pence: (by which, as an author observes, persons lost first a fourth part, and then a third part of their estates in two months time) and at the same time the following new coins were given in good ancient sterling standard. Sovereigns, of which there were of two sorts, of thirty and twenty shillings, and of the latter half sovereigns, with angels, angelets, crown and half crown.

The sovereign had on one side the king's bust crowned; reverse, SCVTVM FIDEI. PROTEGIT. EVM. the arms in a shield, crowned between E. R. Another has the king's titles on the arms side; the reverse, the king with a very youthful countenance, bare headed, and motto SEVTVM, &c. the other sort has his majesty's figure in armour crowned, holding a naked sword in his right hand,

hand, and ball in his left; reverse, the arms crowned between E. R. IHS. AVTEM. TRANSIE. PER. MEDI. ILLO. IBAT. The crown and half crown have the same impression and inscription as the former sovereign.

This king has been generally reputed the first that coined crowns, as well as half crowns, sixpences, and threepences, but by a crown piece in the museum of the Earl of Pembroke, it appears Henry VIII. was the first. The crown, half crown, shilling and sixpence, have all of them the king's titles thus: EDWARDVS. VI. D. G. ANGLIÆ. FRANCE. Z. HIB. REX. and reverse, the king's arms with POSVI. DEVM, &c. only the crown and half crown give him on horseback, underneath the horse 1551; another has the feathers upon the horse's head, whereas the shilling and sixpence give him full faced, whereof there are of two different mints; of York, with the letter Y, and Throgmorton's mint in the Tower an O or Ton for the Mint mark; both these, as well as the sixpence, have a rose on one side the king's head, and XII or VI on the other, besides a fair sixpence I have, with CIVITAS. EBORACI on the reverse, about the arms, instead of POSVI, &c. The threepence with the rose and III has the same inscription to a letter as the shilling, and were so rare, that Mr. Camden had never seen any, for he says

[This History will be continued.]

Queen Elizabeth first coined threepences; besides these, she coined small pieces of base and mixt metal, a penny with a double rose, half-penny with a single rose, and farthings with the portcullice. The indentures in this reign as set down by Mr. Lowndes were as follow:

Third year, twenty two carrafts fine, two allay.

31 Sovereigns, at - 20s. 0d.

Half ditto - - - 10 0

Crowns and half-crowns.

Silver, six ounces fine, six allay.

72 Shillings

Fourth year. Old standard.

24 Sovereigns, at - 24s. 0d.

Half ditto - - - 12 0

Angels - - - 8 0

Half ditto - - - 4 0

Silver, three ounces fine, nine allay.

72 Shillings

Sixth year. Old standard.

24 Sovereigns, at - 30s. 0d.

72 Angels - - - 10 0

144 Half ditto - - - 5 0

Crown gold, twenty two carrafts fine, two carrafts allay.

33 Sovereigns, at - 20s. 0d.

66 Half ditto - - - 10 0

132 Crowns, and 264 half-crowns.

Silver, eleven ounces one penny-weight fine, nineteen penny-weight allay.

12 Crowns, 24 Half crowns, 60

Shillings, 120 Sixpences, 240

Threepences, 720 Pence, 1440

Halfpence, 2880 Farthings.

# AN ACCOUNT OF THE FIVE INDIAN NATIONS OF CANADA.

BY CADWALLADER COLDEN, ESQ.

[Concluded from Page 365.]

THE Five Nations have such absolute notions of liberty, that they allow of no kind of superiority of one over another, and banish all servitude from their territories. They never make any prisoner a slave; but it is customary among them to make a compliment of na-

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turalization into Five Nations; and, considering how highly they value themselves above all others, this must be no small compliment. This is not done by any general act of nation, but every single person has a right to do it, by a kind of adoption. The first time I was among the Mo-

3 I

hawks,

hawks, I had this compliment from one of their old Sachems, which he did, by giving me his own name, Cayenderongue. He had been a notable warrior; and he told me, that now I had a right to assume to myself all the acts of valour he had performed, and that now my name would echo from hill to hill all over the Five Nations. As for my part, I thought no more of it at that time, than as an artifice to draw a belly full of strong liquor from me, for himself and his companions, but when about ten or twelve years afterwards, my business led me again among them, I directed the interpreter to say something from me to the Sachems; he was for some time at a loss to understand their answer, till he had asked me whether I had any name among them; I then found that I was really known to them by that name, and that the old Sachem, from the time he had given me his name, had assumed another to himself. I was adopted, at that time, into the tribe of the Bear, and, for that reason, I often afterwards had the kind compliment of Brother Bear.

The hospitality of these Indians is not less remarkable than their other virtues; as soon as any stranger comes, they are sure to offer him victuals. If there be several in company, and come from a-far, one of their best houses is cleaned and given up for their entertainment. Their complaisance, on these occasions, goes even farther than christian civility allows of, as they have no other rule for it, than the furnishing their guest with every thing they think will be agreeable to him; for this reason, some of their prettiest girls are always ordered to wash themselves, and dress in their best apparel, in order to be presented to the stranger, for his choice; and the young lady, who has the honour to be preferred on these occasions, performs all the duties of a fond wife, during the stranger's stay; but this last piece of

hospitality is now either laid aside by the Mohawks, or, at least, they never offer it to any Christian. This nation, indeed, has laid aside many of its ancient customs, and so likewise have the other nations, with whom we are best acquainted; and have adopted many of ours; so that it is not easy now to distinguish their original and genuine manners, from those which they have lately acquired; and for this reason it is, that they now seldom offer victuals to persons of any distinction, because they know, that their food and cookery is not agreeable to our delicate palates. Their men value themselves, in having all kind of food in equal esteem. A Mohawk Sachem told me with a kind of pride, that a man eats every thing without distinction, bears, cats, dogs, snakes, frogs, &c. intimating, that it is womanish, to have any delicacy in the choice of food.

I can, however, give two strong instances of the hospitality of the Mohawks, which fell under my own observation: and which shew, that they have the very same notion of hospitality, which we find in the ancient poets. When I was last in the Mohawks country, the Sachems told me, that they had an Englishman among their people, a servant who had run from his master in New York. I immediately told them, that they must deliver him up. No, they answered, we never serve any man so, who puts himself under our protection. On this I insisted on the injury they did thereby to his master; and they allowed it might be an injury, and replied, though we never will deliver him up, we are willing to pay the value of the servant to the master. Another man made his escape from the gaol of Albany, where he was in prison on an execution for debt; the Mohawks received him, and, as they protected him against the sheriff and his officers, they not only paid the debt for him, but gave him land, over and above  
sufficient



sufficient for a good farm, whereon he lived when I was last there. To this it may be added, all their extraordinary visits are accompanied with giving and receiving presents of some value; as we learn likewise from Homer was the practice in old times.

Polygamy is not usual among them; and indeed, in any nation, where all are on a par, as to riches and power, plurality of wives cannot well be introduced. As all kind of slavery is banished from the countries of the Five Nations, so they keep themselves free also from the bondage of wedlock; and when either of the parties becomes disgusted, they separate without formality or ignominy to either, unless it be occasioned by some scandalous offence in one of them. And in case of divorce, the children, according to the natural course of all animals, follow the mother. The women here bring forth their children with as much ease as other animals, and without the help of a midwife, and, soon after their delivery, return to their usual employment. They alone also perform all the drudgery about their houses, they plant their corn, and labour it, in every respect, till it is brought to the table; they likewise cut all their fire-wood, and bring it home on their backs, and in their marches bear the burdens. The men disdain all kind of labour, and employ themselves alone in hunting, as the only proper business for soldiers. At times, when it is not proper to hunt, one finds the old men in companies, in conversation; the young men at their exercises, shooting at marks, throwing the hatchet, wrestling, or running, and the women all busy at labour in the fields.

On these occasions, the state of Lacedæmon ever occurs to my mind, which that of the Five Nations, in many respects, resembles; their laws, or customs, being, in both, formed to render the minds

and bodies of the people fit for war.

Theft is very scandalous among them; and it is necessary it should be so among all Indians, since they have no locks, but those of their minds, to preserve their goods.

There is one vice which the Indians have all fallen into, since their acquaintance with the Christians, and of which they could not be guilty before that time, that is, drunkenness; it is strange, how all the Indian nations, and almost every person among them, male and female, are infatuated with the love of strong drink; they know no bounds to their desire, while they can swallow it down, and then indeed the greatest man among them scarcely deserves the name of a brute.

They never have been taught to conquer any passion, but by some contrary passion; and the traders, with whom they chiefly converse, are so far from giving them any abhorrence of this vice, that they encourage it all they can, not only for the profit of the liquor they sell, but that they may have an opportunity to impose upon them. And this, as they chiefly drink spirits, has destroyed greater numbers, than all their wars and diseases put together.

The people of the Five Nations are much given to Speech-making, ever the natural consequence of a perfect republican government: where no single person has a power to compel, the arts of persuasion alone must prevail. As their best speakers distinguish themselves in their public councils and treaties with other nations, and thereby gain the esteem and applause of their countrymen, (the only superiority which any one of them has over the others) it is probable they apply themselves to this art, by some kind of study and exercise, in a great measure. It is impossible for me to judge how far they excel, as I am ignorant of their language; but the

speakers whom I have heard, had all a great fluency of words, and much more grace in their manner, than any man could expect, among a people entirely ignorant of all the liberal arts and sciences.

I am informed, that they are very nice in the turn of their expressions, and that few of themselves are so far masters of their language, as never to offend the ears of their Indian auditory, by an unpolite expression. They have, it seems, a certain Urbanitas, or Atticism, in their language, of which the common ears are ever sensible, though only their great speakers attain to it. They are so much given to speech making, that their common compliments, to any person they respect, at meeting and parting, are made in harangues.

They have some kind of elegance in varying and compounding their words, to which, not many of themselves attain, and this principally distinguishes their best speakers. I have endeavoured to get some account of this, as a thing that might be acceptable to the curious; but, as I have not met with any person who understands their language, and also knows any thing of grammar, or of the learned languages, I have not been able to attain the least satisfaction. Their present minister tells me, that their verbs are varied, but in a manner so different from the Greek and Latin, that he cannot discover by what rule it was done; and even suspects that every verb has a peculiar mode: they have but few radical words, but they compound their words without end; by this their language becomes sufficiently copious, and leaves room for a good deal of art to please a delicate ear. Sometimes one word among them includes an entire definition of the thing; for example, they call wine *Oncharadeshoengtferagherie*, as to say, a liquor made of the juice of the grape. The words expressing things lately come to their knowledge are

all compounds: they have no labels in their language, nor can they pronounce perfectly any word wherein there is a label; and when one endeavours to teach them to pronounce these words, they tell one, they think it ridiculous that they must shut their lips to speak. Their language abounds with gutturals and strong aspirations, these make it very sonorous and bold; and their speeches abound with metaphors, after the manner of the eastern nations.

As to what religious notions they have, it is difficult to judge of them; because the Indians, that speak any English, and live near us, have learned many things of us, and it is not easy to distinguish the notions they had originally among themselves, from those they have learned of the Christians. It is certain they have no kind of public worship, and I am told that they have no radical word to express God, but use a compound word, signifying the preserver, sustainer, or master of the universe; neither could I ever learn what sentiments they have of a future existence. Their funeral rites seem to be formed upon a notion of some kind of existence after death: they make a large round hole, in which the body can be placed upright, or upon its haunches, which after the body is placed in it, is covered with timber, to support the earth which they lay over, and thereby keep the body free from being pressed; they then raise the earth in a round hill over it. They always dress the corps in all its finery, and put wampum and other things into the grave with it; and the relations suffer no grass or any weed to grow on the grave, and frequently visit it with lamentations: but whether these things be done only as marks of respect to the deceased, or from a notion of some kind of existence after death, must be left to the judgment of the reader.

They are very superstitious in ob-

observing omens and dreams; I have observed them shew a superstitious awe of the owl, and be highly displeased with some that mimicked the cry of that bird in the night. An officer of the regular troops has informed me also, that while he had the command of the garrison at Oswego, a boy of one of the far westward nations died there; the parents made a regular pile of split wood, laid the corps upon it, and burnt it; while the

pile was burning, they stood gravely looking on, without any lamentation, but when it was burnt down, they gathered up the bones with many tears, put them into a box, and carried them away with them; and this inclination, which all ignorant people have to superstition and amusing ceremonies, gives the popish priests a great advantage in recommending their religion, beyond what the regularity of the protestant doctrine allows of.

JOURNEY FROM DAMASCUS TO BARUTH, SAYDE, AND  
ST. JOHN D'ACRE, &c.

BY M. PAGES.

[ *Concluded from Page 373.* ]

THE ecclesiastics are poor, and work with their hands to support their families: for though they are Catholics, being of a rite different from the Latin, they may be ordained after marriage, and contracted with one female only. Few among them are bachelors, which is very agreeable to their parishioners. Divine service is celebrated in the Syrian language; but the Gospel and the offices are all read aloud by the priest in Arabic, which is the vulgar language of all countries bordering on Arabia. They are generally ignorant in the theological questions, and they know of no other study than that of the Bible and their catechism; but they are true to their faith, and have good manners; and perhaps more knowledge might foment disputes among them, which would diminish the extreme submission they have for the Romish church. However, our missionaries do a great deal here, as well as in the rest of Syria, both in instructing the Catholics, and in leading back to the true faith, such as are in the errors of schism or heresy. Our religion has made a progress at Damascus, and to the southwest of the mountains, where the Greeks, Syrians, and Arminians, are

not numerous, in comparison to the schismatics and heretics of different rites. It has also extended itself into Egypt, where a number of Cophtes have embraced the belief, and profess obedience to Rome. Some, however, among them persevere still in the usage and rite of their country, which, on the mere account of custom, sanctions circumcision in both sexes, notwithstanding the decision of the court of Rome.

We must hope that these progresses will spread farther, especially in Abyssinia, where the number of Christians, heretics of an honest and good character, would afford a fruitful mission. I know, from experience, how much the augmentation of the number of true missionaries should be favoured or increased, as I saw the pains they are at in Turkey, Persia, and India, countries that are stocked with Christians without helpers, but little instructed. We cannot but admire the progress of the missions in the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, Cambodia, Cochinchina, and China; they are, however, impeded in this latter empire, but the Chinese who are instructed in Italy, are a great help to their countrymen.

I cannot sufficiently admire the answer of a Spanish king, whom they urged

urged to give up the Philippines, on account of the expences which they cost the state; he replied, that he asked no other fruit but that of the mission; and that he was content, if among the millions of Christians that were formed since their reduction, there was one who held a place among the blessed. It may be said with justice, that this crown has made more Christians in Asia and America, than it possesses subjects in Europe, which it has consequently doubled by that virtuous policy.—But let us return to Quesrouan.

Here are a great number of shops, and convents of both sexes, this country being the only safe asylum for the Christians of Turkish Asia. It is the residence of the patriarch of Antioch, to whom, or to the patriarch of the Arminians, who has some convents of his rite there, the Maronites are subject. The patriarch of the Greek Catholics resides in another part of those mountains; their inhabitants are mostly religious, and though vice is common to all countries, it is less so here than any where else. The females are, however, not so closely veiled as in towns; but a girl here who is with child, forfeits her life by the hand of her parents for this fault. A mother would think herself dishonoured, if, on her wedding, the virtue of her daughter was not proved to her by her son-in-law. I had observed the same custom with the Indians of Mexico.

The third day after my arrival, I departed for Jelton. I thought that the most elevated places would be the least frequented, and that consequently I should find their manners pure. I walked towards Mafra. This village is at the foot of the highest mountain of Quesrouan, and it is the place where the flocks are kept in summer time. An hour after my departure, I repaired to a convent, situated between frightful rocks, whence issues a plentiful spring, which waters and renders verdant the environs: this verdure

forms a happy contrast with the aridity of the steep rocks, with which the neighbourhood abounds. This convent is the place of residence of a bishop.

After I had ascended still farther, I passed to the village of Claat, whose soil is fertile, less stony, and covered with fresh and well thriving trees. I rested myself here, in company with a very honest Sheick. Soon after I departed, and after half an hour's walk, arrived at the entrance of a valley in the middle of steep rocks. It had no soil but on the side of a little river, the waters of which roll with a noise and impetuosity over enormous rocks. I descended the mountains on foot, and passed the river on a bridge near a mill. I ascended the mountain on the other shore; it was the roughest I had yet met with. When I arrived at the top I was a little fatigued; but was repaid for it by the sight of an agreeable country, planted with the finest mulberry trees I had hitherto seen; the water flowed from all parts upon a fertile soil, without stones, and almost level the whole width of the amphitheatre, and the ridge of the mountain. The ground beneath those mulberry trees was laid out in gardens for various purposes. A little after I arrived at the village of Mafra, which is about three leagues and a half from Jelton; it is situated on the slope of a high hill which is even on the top, and covered with houses. I was quite pleased with the neatness of that place, and did not regret the trouble it had cost me to arrive at it.

The Sheick of Jelton had recommended me to the curate. I went to call on him, he was not at home, and I found only his wife and children. That good woman received me well, and begged me to wait for her husband, and to rest the mean while. I was pleased in observing the woman with her rustic features, in an advanced pregnancy, and in the bloom of her age, the wife of a priest

priest in all probability not less rustic, who was at that moment tilling his field. She was in the midst of three little children which she sought to please by turns, and she also took care of the house. I admired the simplicity of their living. A kind of porch or open gallery served them for a room: she spread on the floor a bed, where she tried to lull her children to sleep, she watched at the same time an oven, where she put into a pot some slices of pompion, afterwards she dressed eggs for my supper, with milk variously prepared, and bread in form of crapes. She shewed by her looks the desire she had to treat me well, and appeared impatient for her husband's return; he did soon return, and strove to excel his wife in a kind reception; she, according to the custom of Asia, which keeps women at a distance from men, staid no longer with us, but attended to her domestic concerns. At night the hour of prayers brought several inhabitants together, and the priest read them under the canopy of heaven, with as much devotion as could be expected in the most magnificent temple. Some of the neighbours kept me company, bringing forth whatever they could think a subject of amusement.

At night some animals returned home, which perhaps formed all the wealth of that good priest. He and his wife while they fed were fawned on by them, it was the only return they could witness to their master, and the happy effect of the general mildness of the Asiatics.

I caused my bed to be made on a little elevated place under the same porch, and the priest was desirous to lie near me and my conductor. It is a custom in those mountains that the master of the house is himself the guardian of his hosts. The children of the Sheikh of Jelton had done the same; besides, on account of the custom of separating the women from the men, strangers could not lodge in the same house with the

women. The guests are received under porches, or in apartments named Manhouse, which have no communication with the house. I slept very well, but in those lofty mountains which are a continuation of Libanus, the fresh and extremely sharp air of the night indisposed me a little; but the heat of the ensuing day remedied the whole.

At day break we went to hear the mass of that good priest, after which, in spite of his entreaty, I pursued my journey towards the high mountain. There is no dwelling above Mafra, on account of the snow in the winter; even this village is covered with it during six months in the year.

We crossed the farther part of the plantation of mulberry trees of Mafra. The soil continued always fertile, a little stony, and perfectly well variegated. I ascended a little mountain, after which I no longer saw any mulberry trees, probably because the soil was too cold, and subject to snow. I afterwards saw many uncultivated places, where flocks of all kinds were grazing, and arrived at places where they were inclosed in folds, during night, in the middle of the fields. Those folds were at the top of a hill, whose declivity was sown with different kinds of grain. They made hard milk of that which they had got in the morning. I stopt to breakfast, and was joined by divers inhabitants of Mafra.

After breakfast, I was conducted a little higher to a plain of a fertile soil, near a league in length, and one quarter in breadth. It was sown with the same grains as the preceding hill, and its verdure was enchanting. This plain was bounded to the south by a high mountain, which had rocks at top to an invincible extent: to the north and east it was hemmed in by a very small hill, and toward the west it was open, and the prospect presented mountains rising over each other to an immense distance. I was shewn the ruins of a tower, almost square, built

built with stones of an enormous size, and long enough to form floors to recesses cut in it, and to support the upper part of the gate instead of an arch. Above that gate there was an inscription in Greek characters, which I could not copy; but at an angle without I found another, which I copied entirely, even the figures. The academy has been so obliging to give me the explanation thereof; it marks the epocha of the construction of the tower on which it is inscribed, and not of the temple, which I shall presently mention, which is in all likelihood more ancient, and which inscription is to the following purport—"The three hundred and fifty fifth year, Thohnus being for the sixth time entrusted with the care of the temple of the supreme God, this building has been erected."—(The designed era is that of the Sacleucides, or three hundred and twelve years before Jesus Christ.) We also see some ruins which extend from that tower, descending towards the entrance, to the west of the plain of which I have just spoken: these lead to more considerable ruins, where I discovered a large stone, which might probably, by its bulk, have formed the basis of an altar. Near it there was another, on whose plane, and in the middle, there is a long square, relieved and surrounded with a channel cut in the same stone: it formed, perhaps, the table of the same altar. Afterwards I found the rubbish of a large gate, on whose sides without are two galleries, which face one another. At the end of these galleries are two saloons, decorated with columns, whose capitals, sculptured in flowers and leaves, indicate the immensity and beauty of the work. Within the gate is a large court, with a well or subterranean, which is in the middle. At the farther end of this court is a gallery, which takes up the whole length of the building: it is ornamented with very large columns, like those without. Beyond this gallery, as we advance, are the ruins of a wall, and

the area of a vast hall; at the bottom of the hall there are some other ruins. I was not able to discover what was beyond, and if these ruins were the separation of a second hall still further.

This building is almost in ruins, the columns and many parts of the wall are scattered about. It was built among the rocks, which are cut perpendicular very high, and serve for walls in several places. They told me it was a temple, dedicated to the mother of the gods, during the time of the Ptolomies, but which of these princes they did not know. The antiquity of this tradition may have altered it, as it differs from the explanation given by the Royal Academy; this difference is in the word *father* instead of *mother*, which may be easily mistaken in the Arabic. The inhabitants of the country call this place *Elfogra*. It was in these places also, that Solomon caused the cedars to be cut, with which he built part of the temple of Jerusalem. However, the situation of this temple is charming, and the same as I have described the plain to the westward of which it is situated.

I left these ruins, advancing into the plain, in the middle of which, an agreeable and limped spring flows plentifully and invited us to stop. It is so cold that we could not bear our hands in it. I joined in dinner with some inhabitants of Masra, who came to accompany me, and after an agreeable repast we went round the mountain to the right. We perceived some inscriptions in Greek still remaining, but as they consisted only of two or three letters each, they did not induce me to copy them. We went towards the last, and ascending the mountain, we discovered some other ruins with some stones, which appeared to have been crossed by pipes belonging to some fountains. These ruins may have served for a prospect to the building, or to the temple which I had seen at the bottom of the plain.



AN ACCOUNT OF THE TEMPLE, THE PRISON OF LEWIS XVI.  
AND THE ROYAL FAMILY OF FRANCE.

WITH A VIEW OF THE SAME.

**T**HIS ancient and magnificent, though gloomy edifice, whose appearance alone strikes horror into the soul of every beholder, was originally a church, belonging to a monastery of the Knights Templars, whose fatal end, occasioned by their infamous vices, has made so striking and memorable an event in history. They were cut off by an universal conspiracy formed against them, which broke out at the same hour all over Europe; and in the course of a single night, without warning or suspicion, they were all exterminated from the human race, the most numerous and most depraved of any priestly order. Thus heaven has marked them as a signal example of its hatred to vice. It was in this temple that Henry the Fifth, of England, after having conquered France, and espoused Catharine, the daughter of the French king, dined with the royal family of France, the two kings with their crowns on their heads. It was here also that the same English monarch gave an entertainment to all the inhabitants of Paris, who found in these stupendous towers place enough to contain so numerous a body.— This dismal structure is at present the repository of all that remains of royalty in France. Here sighs that Lewis, whose birth and expectations gave him a prospect of that absolute monarchy which his forefathers maintained over the very people who have now declared themselves his sovereign. Here mourns that queen, whose haughty soul, more than the blood of her ancestors, seemed to entitle her to empire. No eye has seen her tears, nor has yet the rumour of her complaints reached any ear: the ravage of her

misfortunes will be seen in her frame, but her heart will ever remain unconquerable. Here, after all the magnificence of their former palaces, which they found too small for their luxurious court, at length three cheerless apartments are judged sufficient for these royal personages and their infant son. But though so sadly excluded from the conversation of mankind, they are not permitted, even in this melancholy retreat, to enjoy the conveniences of solitude: not a word or action can pass unnoticed by the guards, who never quit their presence, and whose unceasing vigilance is found hardly sufficient to restrain their active and political designs. One window in each melancholy apartment, lets in just light and air enough for the preservation of life, and they have from thence no other prospect than that of an insurmountable wall, building before their eyes, and nearly accomplished, to shut them up entirely from the sight of mankind.

Here we see a memorable instance of the vicissitudes of time and fortune, the blindness of human industry, and the deep-laid schemes of politicians. This dark monument of priestly and royal power, which has flourished for many ages as a magnificent emblem of their permanent duration, is at length become the fatal scene of the destruction of both, and the last decisive triumph over monarchy. How contrary to the intention of the first constructors! It can only be compared to the fate of Haman, who devised and erected that gallows for another, on which himself was ingloriously hung up.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE REPRESENTATION OF  
ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

[ Continued from Page 361. ]

*Oxford County.*

**N**O county can be more under the controul of aristocracy than this. In 1754 a great contest took place between the friends of ministry and opposition, but *they now manage these things better*, and the Duke of Marlborough returns one member, and Lords Abingdon, Macclesfield, and Wenman, the other, by which means the freeholders of this opulent county are in a worse state than the voters in a rotten borough.

*Oxford City.* The right of election is in the corporation and freemen, whose number are about 1000; yet they are so much under the influence of the Duke of Marlborough and Lord Abingdon, that these noblemen each return one member.

*Oxford University.* Here toryism reigns in full power; however, they do not suffer themselves to be cajoled in the election of their members by any private influence, but generally return men of their own sentiments.

*Woodstock*, is so completely under the controul of that high and mighty prince, the Duke of Marlborough, that no decision on the right of election has ever been made by an appeal to the House of Commons; the right is said to be in the freemen, in number about 200.

*Banbury*, returns only one member; the right of voting is in the mayor and capital burgesses, in number 19, of whom the Earl of Guildford is patron.

*Rutland County.* The influence here is in Lords Exeter, Cardigan, Winchelsea, and Gainborough, who settle whom among their friends shall have the honour to represent it.

*Salop County.* This county preserves some degree of independence, but the Marquis of Stafford bears

considerable sway; and as one of their late members was created a peer, in order to bring in a friend of the minister's, and as one of their present members, (although he, good man, despises the things of this world) is shrewdly suspected to have a longing desire for a coronet, there is reason to suppose that aristocracy will soon rise on the ruins of independence.

*Shrewsbury.* The right of election here was once popular and free, but by a decision of the House of Commons, in 1723, it is confined to the burgesses inhabiting the precinct of the borough only. The number of voters are still about 400.

*Bridgenorth.* The family of Whitmore, of Apley, have represented this borough ever since the 18th James I. and this influence, which is not established either by undue or compulsory means, still continues; the voters who are the burgesses and freemen, are about 700.

*Ludlow.* This town is not absolutely under the controul of a patron, but Lord Clive has influence enough to return one member; the voters are burgesses, amounting to 500.

*Wenlock*, a paltry village, the property of Sir Henry Bridgman and Mr. Forrester, the present members; the number of voters do not exceed 100.

*Bishops Castle*, has about fifty burgesses, but as the town is the property of Lord Clive, these are entirely under his orders.

*Somersetshire.* A free, independent, and spirited county. At a general meeting they resolved not to give their vote for the brother or son of a peer, nor to any candidate supported by such interest; a resolution which we wish to see copied by every county in the kingdom.

*Bristol*

*Bristol City.* This extensive city, the second in England, has 6000 voters, being freeholders of forty shillings a year, and free burgesses. Its independence may be inferred from its number of voters.

*Bath,* has been convicted of shameful corruption. Although a large and populous city, the representation is confined to the corporation, consisting of 32, who find it convenient to have the Marquis of Bath and Earl Camden as patrons.

*Wells City.* The prevailing influence here is Mr. Tudway, the present member, who, with a friend of his, has, we believe, been returned without expense.

*Taunton.* Here the inhabitants elect, whose number on a late poll was 456. Two rich bankers are at present contesting this borough; Sir Benjamin Hamet, and Mr. Morland. The interest of the former has hitherto prevailed.

*Bridgewater.* The inhabitants paying scot and lot, have here the right of voting; their number about 300, over the majority of whom Earl Poulett has continued to gain a sufficient influence to secure the return of his two friends.

*Minchhead.* The right of election has been determined to be in the housekeepers, who are parishioners of Dunster and Minchhead. The borough was an ancient feudal tenure, which has descended to the Lutterel family, the present representative of which is sole patron.

*Ilchester,* has 155 voters, housekeepers, but as a majority of these dwellings have been lately bought by Mr. Harcourt, the present member, that gentleman can return whom he pleases. It is said Mr. H. since last election has disposed of this property to an attorney of Norfolk-street, London.

*Milburne Port,* consists of nine burgate tenures only, the property of Mr. Medlycot and Mr. Walter; it is a borough by prescription, and

the two abovenamed gentlemen sway the election.

*Staffordshire,* although a large, rich, and populous county, is completely under aristocratic influence. The Marquis of Stafford, whose son is one of the representatives, Lords Stamford, Bagot, Uxbridge, Talbot, Dartmouth, and Vernon, have powerful interest. The Stafford and Bagot interest generally prevails.

*Stafford Town,* has no patron, although the number of voters does not exceed 400. It may rather be said to have shewn a spirit of independence by its repeated returns of Mr. Sheridan.

*Litchfield City.* The right of election in this city is in the freeholders of forty shillings a year, and the burgate tenure-holders, with such freemen as are enrolled; the number of voters are 600, and Lord Stafford and Mr. Anson contrive to put in each one member.

*Newcastle-under-Line.* The freemen residing in Newcastle vote; but although their number is between 6 and 700, yet by reason of Lord Stafford, having a property in the greatest part of the borough, his influence directs the choice of the members. It appeared in evidence before the last committee, that many of the electors lived in houses ten or more years without paying rent.

*Tamworth.* The joint property of the Marquis of Townshend and Mr. Peele, the banker; the inhabitants vote, to the number of 200.

*Suffolk,* a county which possesses much independency of spirit, although sometimes by a junction of ministerial and aristocratic influence their choice is defeated.

*Ipswich,* has no particular patron, but great complaints have been made of corruption, and we find on record with great reason. The number of freemen who vote are about 600.

*Dunwich,* a mean village, where the corporation have the whole power

power of electing the members, and that consists of two bailiffs and twelve capital burgesses, under the patronage of Sir Joshua Vanneck, and Barne Barne, Esq.

*Orford.* The right of election is vested in the mayor, recorder, eight freemen, and twelve burgesses, in all 22, most of whom are composed of the sons and relations of the Earl of Hertford. It is needless to say his lordship takes proper care of the return.

*Aldborough.* The right of election was once in the inhabitants paying scot and lot; but by a resolution of the House of Commons, it is now confined to the burgesses, who are about 30, under the patronage of P. C. Crespigny, Esq.

*Sudbury,* under the patronage of another of the Crespigny family, but they are not quite certain, and have been twice defeated: the voters are 725 freemen.

*Eye.* The corporation here, with the inhabitants, elect the members; their number about 200, and as the town is the property of Lord Cornwallis, his lordship puts in the members.

*St. Edmundsbury,* although a respectable town, yet the corporation have usurped the right of voting; their number is 27, under the influence of the Duke of Grafton.

*Surrey County,* is absolutely independent of controul, although represented by the brothers of two peers.

*Southwark,* from its great population and opulence, and from the extension of the privilege of voting, may be considered as independent. The inhabitants, paying scot and lot, elect, and the number is near 2000.

*Bletchingly,* a poor village, consisting of about sixty houses; the right of voting is in 90 burgage-tenures, the sole property of Sir Robert Clayton, who may therefore be said to be the only elector. This borough has no regular returning officer.

*Ryegate,* gives right of voting to the freeholders, which the Earl of Hardwick and Lord Somers have purchased; and as the property is almost equally divided, they each return a relation or a friend.

*Guildford.* The right of election here is singular, being in the freemen and freeholders, paying scot and lot, and residing in the town. The right of election thus confined, limits the number of voters to about 100, and a majority of the freeholds belong to Lords Onslow and Grantley.

*Watlington.* This borough, if it can be so called, has long been famous as one of the rotten parts of the constitution. It has been sold and resold three or four times within this last six years. The proprietors at present are two, who may, if they please, elect each other.

*Hastmere.* The right of election is in the freeholders, which being the property of Lord Lonsdale by a late purchase, his lordship is sole patron.

*Suffex,* a county much under the aristocracy. In 1774, by a vigorous effort, they for once recovered their independence; but the influence of the Dukes of Richmond and Dorset, and the Lords Ashburnham, Abergavenny, Egremont, and Pelham, seem too powerful to be again shaken.

*Chichester,* has long been under the dictation of the Duke of Richmond; after a warm struggle, the independent electors have succeeded in bringing in one candidate, and to all appearance might bring in the other if they chose; but to preserve the peace of the borough, the Duke is permitted to bring in one. The number of voters, who are inhabitants paying scot and lot, are above 600.

*Horsham,* a place of considerable trade, but the right of election is in the burgage-holders, being in number 25, fourteen of which belong to Lady Irwin, and eleven to the Duke of Norfolk. His Grace made a bold push to carry the borough last election,

election, but in the end the lady triumphed.

*Midhurst*, a borough, although it has not a single house standing within its limits, the number of burghage-holds are about 120, but all are the property of the Earl of Egremont, who lately purchased it for 40,000 guineas, and his lordship's brothers are the present members.

*Lewes*. The right of voting is in the householders, in number about 240, over whom Lord Pelham has acquired sufficient interest to return one member.

*Shoreham*. This borough has rendered itself conspicuous by a scene of corruption, discovered in 1771. A majority of voters formed themselves into a society, which they called the Christian club, with a view to make a traffic of their votes. They chose a select committee, who never voted, but only made the bargain. The returning officer was one of their number, but taking a disgust to this *Christian* society, he discovered the whole. This infamous transaction obliged the House of Commons to take a severe measure; they disfranchised the delinquents, and as they formed a clear majority of the borough, it became

necessary to supply their places, which was done by giving the right of voting to the freeholders of the rape of Bramber, in which Shoreham is situated; this has made the number of voters respectable, as they now consist of 1200.

*Bramber*, a miserable place, consisting of 36 thatched cottages, all burghage-tenures, the property of Sir Henry Calthorpe and the Duke of Norfolk, who of course direct who shall be members; this, together with

*Steyning*, form but one street; the right of election here has long been disputed, and is now settled, so as to give the patronage to his Grace of Norfolk and Sir John Honeywood.

*East Grinstead*, where the right is in the burghage-holders, of which, in number thirty-six, the Duke of Dorset possesses twenty-nine, and consequently commands the borough.

*Arundel*. The inhabitants here vote, but as the corporation, which has great sway, are in the interest of their neighbour the Duke of Norfolk, he is permitted to nominate one member. The number of voters are about 190.

[ *To be continued.* ]

AUTHENTIC PAPERS FROM GOVERNOR PHILLIP,  
RESPECTING THE STATE OF THE COLONIES OF BOTANY BAY AND  
NORFOLK ISLAND.

[ *Continued from Page 370.* ]

*Sidney Cove, April 11, 1790.*

THE quantity of flour brought from the Cape of Good Hope, by the *Sirius*, was less than I expected; four months flour only for the settlement, and a year's provision for the ship's company: and it was necessary to give the ship a very considerable repair before she could be sent to sea again, which was not completed before the middle of January; when I had reason to expect ships from England in the course of a few

weeks. The sending to the islands would have answered, as far as procuring live stock to breed from, but which was not immediately wanted; and what the *Sirius* could have brought for the consumption of such a number of people, would have been at best but a small relief. Lord Howe island has been tried several times, and only a very few turtle procured.

The goodness of the soil in Norfolk island, and the industry of those

em-

employed there, rendered that island a resource, and the only one that offered, when, from the time which had passed since my letters might be supposed to have been received in England, there was reason to suppose some accident had happened to the store ships sent out.

I therefore ordered two companies of marines to be ready to embark, with a number of convicts, by the fifth of March, if no ship arrived before that time; and a proportion of what provisions and stores remained in this settlement, being put on board the Supply and Sirius, sixty-five officers and men, with five women and children, from the detachment and civil department, one hundred and sixteen male, and sixty-seven female convicts, with twenty-seven children, embarked, and sailed the sixth of March.

The advantage I expected by sending away such a number of people, was from the little garden ground they would leave, and which would assist those who remained, and the fish which might be caught in the winter would go the further. At the same time, those sent to Norfolk island would have resources in the great abundance of vegetables raised there, and in fish and birds, which this settlement could not afford them; and it was my intention to have sent more convicts to that island, if there had not been this necessity.

The provisions sent, with what was on the island, and the wheat and Indian corn raised there, more than would be necessary for seed, was calculated to last full as long as the provisions in this place; and at Norfolk island, from the richness of the soil, a man may supply himself with little assistance from the store, after the timber is cleared away.

As I wished to send an officer to England, who could give such information as cannot be conveyed by letters, and the detachment was now divided, I replaced the officer who was superintendant and commandant at Norfolk island, by major Ross.

The officer I have recalled having been there two years on the island, is very capable of pointing out the advantages which may be expected from it; and I think it promises to answer very fully the end proposed by making the settlement. It will be a place of security for the convicts, where they will soon support themselves, and where they may be advantageously employed in cultivating the flax plant.

Extract from instructions given by governor Philip to the lieutenant-governor, during his command at Norfolk island, dated 2d March, 1790.

You will cause the convicts to be employed in the cultivation of the land, in such manner as shall appear to you the best calculated to render that settlement independent, as far as respects the necessaries of life, paying such attention to the cultivation of the flax plant as your situation will admit of, and which is to be the principal object, when the necessaries of life are secured to the settlers.

As, from the great increase of corn, and other vegetable food, which may be expected from a common industry, and in so fertile a soil, after a certain quantity of ground is cleared and in cultivation, as well as from the natural increase of swine and other animals, it cannot be expedient that all the convicts should be employed in attending only to the object of provisions; you are to cause the greatest possible number of these people to be employed in cultivating and dressing the flax plant, as a means of acquiring clothing for themselves, and other persons, who may become settlers, as well as for a variety of maritime purposes, and for which its superior excellence renders it a desirable object in Europe.

You will at every opportunity, transmit to me all such remarks, or observations, as you may make, respecting the nature of the soil on the island;



island; and point out such means as may appear to you the most likely to answer the views of government, in the cultivation of the flax plant, and in rendering that island independent for the necessities of life, and for the order and government of the settlers thereon, that such information may from me be transmitted to his majesty's ministers.

Copy of a paper delivered by lieutenant-governor King, dated the 10th of January 1791, containing a description of Norfolk island.

Norfolk island is situated in the latitude of 29 degrees, 0 min. south; and in the longitude of 168 degrees, 0 min. east. Its form is nearly oblong, and contains from twelve to fourteen thousand acres.

The face of the country is hilly, and some of the vallies are tolerably large for the size of the island: many of the hills are very steep, and some few so very perpendicular, that they cannot be cultivated; but where such situations are, they will do very well for fuel; on the tops of the hills are some very extensive flats.

Mount Pitt is the only remarkable high hill in the island, and is about one hundred and fifty fathoms high, the cliffs which surround the island are about forty fathoms high, and perpendicular; the basis of the island is a hard firm clay. The whole island is covered with a thick wood, choaked up with a thick underwood.

The island is well supplied with many streams of very fine water; many of which are sufficient to turn any number of mills. These springs are full of very large eels. From the coast to the summit of Mount Pitt, is a continuation of the richest and deepest soil in the world, which varies from a rich black mould to a fat red earth. We have dug down forty feet, and found the same soil.

The air is very wholesome, and the climate may be called a very

healthy one: there has been no sickness since I first landed on the island.

There are five kinds of trees on the island which are good timber, viz. the pine, live oak, or yellow wood, a hard black wood, and a kind of beech. The pine trees are of a large size, many of which are from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and twenty feet in height, and from six to nine feet in diameter. Those trees which are from one hundred to one hundred and eighty feet in height, are, in general, found: from the root to the lower branches, there are from eighty to ninety feet of sound timber: the rest is too hard and knotty for use. It sometimes happens, that, after cutting off twenty feet from the butt, it becomes rotten or shaky; for which reason no dependence can be put in it for large masts or yards. The timber of the pine is very useful in buildings, and is plentiful along the coasts. Its dispersed situation in the interior parts of the island, is well calculated for erecting such buildings as may be necessary. From what I have seen of this wood, I think it is very durable; two boats have been built of it, and have answered the purpose fully.

The live oak, yellow wood, black wood, and beech, are all of a close grain, and are a durable wood.

The flax plant of New Zealand grows spontaneously in many parts of the island, but mostly abounds on the sea-coast, where there is a very great quantity of it. The leaves of the flax, when fully grown, are six feet long, and six inches wide. Each plant contains seven of those leaves. A strong woody stalk arises from the center, which bears the flowers. It seeds annually; and the old leaves are forced out by young ones every year. Every method has been tried to work it; but I much fear, that, until a native of New Zealand can be carried to Norfolk island, the method of dressing that valuable commodity will not be known; and, could

could that be obtained, I have no doubt but Norfolk island would very soon cloath the inhabitants of New South Wales.

There are a great quantity of pigeons, parrots, hawks, and other smaller birds, which are now in a wild state.

The ground is much infested with different kinds of the grub worm, which are very destructive to the growth of vegetables. They are mostly troublesome about the spring. It is to be hoped, that, when more ground is cleared away, this evil will cease.

There is no quadruped on the island, except the rat, which is much smaller than the Norway rat. These vermin were very troublesome when first we landed; but at present there are but very few.

The coasts of the island abound with very fine fish. No opportunities were ever lost of sending the boat out, which enabled us to make a saving of two pounds of meat each man a week.

The coasts of the island are in general steep; and, excepting at Sydney, Anson, Ball, and Cascade Bays, they are inaccessible, being surrounded by steep perpendicular cliffs, arising from the sea. Some rocks are scattered about close to the shore.

Sydney Bay, on the south side of the island, is where the settlement is made. Landing at this place entirely depends on the wind and the weather. I have seen as good landing as in the Thames for a fortnight or three weeks together; and I have often seen it impracticable to land for ten or twelve days successively; but it is much oftener good landing than bad.

Anson's Bay is a small bay, with a sandy beach, where landing is in general good, with an off-shore wind, and moderate weather; but, as the interior parts of the island are so difficult of access from thence, no ships boats have ever landed there.

Ball Bay is on the south-east side of the island; the beach is of a large loose stone. When landing is bad in Sydney Bay, it is very good here; as it also is in Cascade Bay, on the north side of the island.

During the winter months, viz, from April to August, the general winds are the south and south-west, with heavy gales at times. In the summer, the south-east wind blows almost constantly.

The spring is visible in August; but the native trees, and many plants in the island, are in a constant state of flowering. The summer is warm, and sometimes the droughts are very great. All the grain and European plants seeded in December. From February to August may be called the rainy season; not that I think there are any stated times for rains in these months, and as it is sometimes very fine weather for a fortnight together; but when the rain does fall, it is in torrents. I do not remember above three claps of thunder during the time I was on the island. The winter is very pleasant, and it never freezes.

The proper time for sowing wheat and barley is from May to August, and is got in in December. That which has been sowed, has produced twenty-five fold, and I think the increase may be greater. Two bushels of barley, sowed in 1789, produced twenty-four bushels of a sound full grain.

The Indian corn produces well; and it is, in my opinion, the best grain to cultivate in any quantity, on account of the little trouble attending its growth and manufacturing for eating.

The Rio Janeiro sugar cane grows very well, and is thriving.

Vines and oranges are very thriving; of the former there will be a great quantity in a few years.

Potatoes thrive remarkably well, and yield a very great increase. I think two crops a year of that article may be got with great ease.

Every

Every kind of garden vegetable thrives well, and comes to great perfection.

The quantity of ground cleared, and in cultivation, belonging to

the public, was, on the 13th of March, 1790, from twenty-eight to thirty-two acres; and about eighteen cleared by free people and convicts for their gardens.

CHARACTER OF THE PEASANTRY OF NORWAY, WITH A SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THAT COUNTRY.

FROM COX'S TRAVELS INTO POLAND, RUSSIA, SWEDEN, AND DENMARK.

"THE Norwegians, being the same race with the Danes, and so long connected with them in religion and government, speak the same language, with a necessary mixture of provincial expressions. Wilse, a native of Norway, informs us, that the gentry and inhabitants of the principal towns, allowing for a few provincial expressions, speak purer Danish than is usual even in Denmark, not excepting Copenhagen; that the inhabitants of the eastern confines bordering on Sweden naturally blend many Swedish words; that throughout the whole country the general accent and cadence is more analogous to the Swedish than to the Danish pronunciation; and that the inhabitants on the western coasts, who have a more constant communication with the Danes, partake less of this peculiarity.

"The Norwegians maintain their own army, which consists of 24,000 infantry, and 6,000 cavalry. The troops are much esteemed for their bravery, and, like the Swiss mountaineers, exceedingly attached to their country.

"The horses which supply their cavalry are small, but strong, active, and hardy.

"Every peasant (those excepted, who inhabit the coasts, and are classed as sailors) not born in a town, or upon some noble estate, is by birth a soldier, and enrolled for service at the age of sixteen. From that year until he has attained the age of 26, he is classed in the young militia. At 26 he enters into the old militia, and continues to serve

till 36, at which period he receives his discharge. The militia take the field every year in the month of June, and remain encamped about a month.

"Norway is blessed with a particular code, called the Norway law, compiled by Griffelfeld, at the command of Christian the Fifth, the great legislator of his country. By this law, the palladium of Norway, the peasants are free, a few only excepted on certain noble estates near Fredericksstadt. But the virtue of this law extends itself even to those serfs, for no proprietor can have more than one of these privileged estates; and unless he possesses a title or certain rank, and resides on his estate, he loses his privilege, and the peasants are free.

"The benefits of the Norway code are so visible in its general effects on the happiness and in the appearance of the peasants, that a traveller must be blind who does not instantly perceive the difference between the free peasants of Norway and the enslaved vassals of Denmark, though both living under the same government.

"Many of the peasants pretend to be descended from the ancient nobles, and some even from the royal line: they greatly pride themselves upon this supposed descent, and are careful not to give their children in marriage but to their equals in birth and blood.

"A curious custom prevails in Norway, called *odels right*, or right of inheritance, by which the proprietor of certain freehold estates may re-purchase his estate, which

either he or any of his ancestors have sold, provided he can prove the title of his family. But in order to enforce this claim, his ancestors, or he, must have declared every tenth year, at the sessions, that they lay claim to the estate, but that they want money to redeem it; and if he, or his heirs are able to obtain a sufficient sum, then the possessor must, on receiving the money, give up the estate to the odels-man. For this reason, the peasants who are freeholders, keep a strict account of their pedigree. This custom is attended with advantages and disadvantages. As to the advantage, it fixes the affections of the peasant on his native place, and he improves with pleasure those possessions which are so strongly secured to him: it increases the consequence and excites the industry of his family. On the contrary, the estate loses its value when sold to another person, because, as he possesses only a precarious estate, which he may be obliged to resign, he is not inclined to improve the lands, as if they were irrecoverably his own.

"The Norwegian peasants possess much spirit and fire in their manner, are frank, open, and undaunted, yet not insolent; never fawning to their superiors, yet paying proper respect to those above them.

"Their principal mode of salute is by offering their hand; and when we gave them or paid them a trifle, the peasants, instead of returning thanks by words or by a bow, shook our hands with great frankness and cordiality.

"The peasants of Norway are well clothed and well lodged, and appear to possess more comforts and conveniences of life than any which I have seen in the course of my travels, excepting in some parts of Switzerland.

"They weave their ordinary cloth and linen; they make also a kind of stuff like a Scotch plaid. The cloth which the men use for their coats is principally of a stone

colour, with red button holes, and white metal buttons.

"The women, while employed in their household affairs, frequently, as in Sweden, appear only with a petticoat and a shift, with a collar reaching to the throat, and a black sash tied round the waist. Their linen is remarkably fine: and as they are usually well made, this mode of dress sets off their shapes to the highest advantage.

"The common food of the peasant is milk, cheese, dried or salted fish, and sometimes, but rarely, flesh or dried meat, oat-bread called fladbrod, baked in small cakes about the size and thickness of a pancake; it is usually made twice a year. I observed a woman employed in preparing it: having placed over the fire a round iron plate, she took a handful of dough, and rolled it out with a rolling-pin to the size of the iron plate; she then placed it on the plate, and baked it on one side, then turned it on the other with a small stick. In this manner she baked an astonishing number in less than a quarter of an hour; and I was informed that one woman, in one day, can bake sufficient for the family during a whole year. The peasants also, in times of scarcity, mix the bark of trees, usually of the fir tree, with their oatmeal; then dry this bark before the fire, grind it to powder, mix it with some oatmeal, then bake it and eat it like bread: it is bitterish, and affords but little nourishment.

"As a luxury, the peasants eat sharke, or thin slices of meat, sprinkled with salt, and dried in the wind, like hung beef; also a soup made like hasty-pudding, of oatmeal or barley-meal, and in order to render it more palatable, they put in it a pickled herring or salted mackerel.

"The use of potatoes has been lately introduced, but those roots do not grow to any size in a country where the summer is so short.

"Fabricius strongly recommends,

In times of scarcity, the mosses and lichens, and particularly the *lichen islandicus*, which yields a very nourishing sustenance, and is commonly used for food in Iceland.

"According to a series of meteorological observations taken by Mr. Wilse, pastor of Sydeborg, it snows most in December and in the middle of January. It rains most in April, October, and August. The clearest weather is from the middle of June to the middle of July, and during the whole month of March. Winds are most violent in the middle and latter end of April, May, and October. The stillest season is in January; from the tenth of June to the eleventh of July, and in the middle of August, a circumstance very profitable to the oat-harvest, which of all corn is more easily subject to cast its ripe grain in windy weather. If we compare the climate of Norway with the climate of London, March at London is like April and the beginning of May in Norway; and the March of Norway is our January. On account of the frequent spring frosts, seeds ought not to be sown in gardens before the twentieth of May, and the frosts of the latter end of August are not less detrimental.

"The heat and cold varies so much in Norway, that in June or July, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer, as observed by Mr. Wilse at Sydeborg, near Frederickshall, not unusually rises to 88, and on the first of January 1782, fell to --22, or 54 degrees below the freezing point. At Eger, according to professor Stroem's observations, it fell on that same day to --36½; and at Kongberg to --40, 72 below freezing point, a degree of cold by which quicksilver is congealed. This extreme rise and fall of the quicksilver makes a difference of 110 degrees between the greatest heat and greatest cold at the same place; a difference much more considerable than is observed at Upsala or Stockholm, which lie

nearly in the same latitude as Sydeborg.

"In some places vegetation is so quick, that the corn is sown and cut in six or seven weeks.

"Tillage cannot generally be very flourishing in a country, which is in many parts so rocky as to defy the plough; where the climate is so severe, that the hoar-frosts begin in September, and where the cold in the highlands prevents the maturity of the corn. It is true, indeed, that the small vallies, and the intervals between the rocks, are usually provided with a fruitful soil, and that the industry of the peasants covers the naked rocks, and the sandy grounds with a new earth; yet the arable grounds are few, and no parts of Norway yield sufficient corn for interior consumption, the districts of Hedemark, Toien, and Ringerike, excepted.

"This deficiency is occasioned by the nature of the climate and soil. In spring, and in the first summer months, the drought and heat are frequently so intolerable, and the vegetable mould so thin, that the roots of the corn and grass are burned up, if a few days of sunshine succeed each other without rain. Also the greatest part of the soil is so much blended with sand, that too much rain cannot fall in spring and summer. In autumn, on the contrary, the decreased warmth, and the great quantity of rain prevents the corn from ripening, and it is frequently cut green. Not unusually, when a favourable season has ripened the corn, the frequent and violent autumnal rains hinder the carrying of it in until it is almost spoiled. Also the small quantity of arable land seldom lies fallow, but it is sowed every year, and therefore requires more manure than can be easily procured.

"All these circumstances so much counteract the industry of the Norwegian farmers, that even in the most favourable seasons, a considerable importation of corn is annually

necessary; and in unfavourable harvests the utmost dearth is experienced in all the inland parts, as the transport of the corn from the sea coasts is highly expensive.

"In order to dry the corn exposed to the heavy rains, the peasants fix forked poles, about ten feet high, place rows of other poles transversely, on which they file the sheaves, the lowermost row hanging about two feet from the ground. They are also frequently obliged to bake the corn in wooden sheds, heated by means of stoves.

"As Norway, therefore, does not produce sufficient corn for its own consumption, Denmark enjoys the exclusive privilege of supplying with grain that part called Sudeu-fields, comprehending the two governments of Aggerhuus and Christianland. This monopoly frequently occasions a scarcity of corn; but though sometimes attended with great inconveniencies and occasional distress, yet will not be abolished without great difficulty, because the Danish nobles, who are always at the head of affairs, find their interest in its continuance.

"But Norway, however deficient in arable land, is exceedingly rich in pasture, and consequently produces much cattle. The mode of keeping the cows is similar to that practised in the mountains of Switzerland. About the middle of May they are driven to the meadows; towards the middle of June are sent to pasture on the heights, or in the midst of the forests, where they continue till autumn. The cows are usually attended by a woman, who inhabits a small hut, milks them twice a day, and makes butter and cheese on the spot. On their return the cattle are pastured in the meadows, until the snow sets in about the middle of October, when they are removed to the stables, and fed during winter with four fifths of straw, and one fifth of hay. The horses are usually foddered with hay during winter, and are seldom

pastured before the beginning of June. In some places the cattle are fed also with salted fish.

"Agriculture has been of late years greatly improved in these parts, and the landed estates are increased within these last fifty years near one third in their value. This improvement is considerably owing to the labours and encouragement of the patriotic society, which gives premiums for the best improvements and instructions in every part of farming.

"The fisheries, particularly on the western coast, furnish employment and wealth to the natives, and are the means of supplying the finest sailors for manning the Danish fleet in times of war.

"The principal fish, which, dried and salted, furnish so considerable an article of exportation, are the cod, the ling, and the whiting: their livers, besides, yield train oil, and the smallest are given as winter fodder to the cattle.

"The herring fishery is not so profitable as formerly, as these fish, which used to frequent the coasts of Norway, in their progress from the north pole, now keep at a greater distance from these shores, and first approach the rocks of Marstrand and Stroemstrand, which has transferred to the Swedes the principal herring fishery in these parts, though still sufficient profit accrues to those enterprising fishermen who venture further from the coasts.

"The salmon are taken partly in the bays, and partly in the rivers, the streams of which they ascend for the purpose of spawning in spring. This is the most costly fish in these parts, and is cured by salting and smoking.

"Mackerel might also be taken in much larger quantities, if many of the Norwegians were not prejudiced against eating them, from a strange notion, that shoals of mackerel often attack and devour the human species, when bathing in the sea.

"The



"The extensive forests of Norway, which furnish riches to the proprietors, and so much employment to the natives, are applied to the following purposes.

"1. For spars, beams, and planks, which are exported in such large quantities. 2. For charcoal, which is required for the smelting of the ores, for the glass furnaces, and other manufactures. The wood used for this purpose is usually of an inferior sort, and chiefly in the inner parts, where the transport of the planks is too expensive. 3. For building, the greatest part of the houses in Norway being constructed of wood; for although there is plenty of stone, yet the transporting of the materials, and the lime, are too expensive for common use. 4. For the roads, which, in the more northern parts, are almost entirely formed with wood. 5. For turpentine, for which the oldest trees are mostly used. 6. For fencing and enclosing the fields, quickset hedges being almost unknown. The wood used for enclosures is chiefly pine or fir, and must be renewed every three or four years. 7. For fuel. 8. For manure, by the same process of burning the trees and manuring the soil with the ashes, which is practised in Sweden, and is so destructive to the forests.

"Besides these general uses derived from the forests, the particular trees are beneficially employed to the following purposes:

"The bark of the pine or fir, and also of the elm, which is not common in Norway, is dried, ground, and mixed among meal, and is boiled up with other food, to feed swine, who thrive much upon it.

"The birch, which flourishes in these northern regions, is particularly useful for various purposes. It is more generally used for fuel than any other wood. The outer bark, or the white rind, on account

of its firmness and sap, easily escapes putrefaction even in the dampest places: and for this reason is employed for covering the roofs of the houses, in order to keep out the rain.

"This mode of roofing occasions such a large consumption of the outward bark, that the birch, which are felled, would not supply a sufficient quantity; it is, therefore, not unusual to strip off the outward bark while the tree is standing, and if peeled with care, it always grows again.

"The inner bark of the birch is applied like the bark of oaks for tanning hides, fishing nets, and sails, which it renders more durable.

"This tree also supplies a kind of wine by the following process: a hole is bored in the trunk, and the wine distils into a flask placed under it. The tree suffers little damage, if the hole is immediately closed by a wooden peg. The twigs of the birch, as well as the elder and aspen are given to horses in scarcity of fodder. A decoction of oak leaves in beer is used by the peasants as a cure for the rheumatism, by applying a cloth dipped in the decoction to the part affected.

"The general exports of Norway are tallow, butter, salt, dried fish, timber and plank, horses and horned cattle, silver, allum, Prussian blue, copper, of which the celebrated mine of Roras yields annually to the value of £.67,500; and iron, of which the most productive mine is near Arendal.

"Norway abounds in lakes and rivers, more than any country I ever visited, excepting Switzerland. It is remarkable for the number and beauty of the bays fringed with wood. Many of the lakes are so large, that they appear like inlets of the sea: and the bays are so small, that they appear like lakes."

## MISCELLANEOUS REFLECTIONS.

**T**HE rapid increase of luxury, and the consequent introduction of polished and social manners, has been censured as one grand cause of the effeminacy of the people. It has been suggested that the martial spirit, the virtuous independence of former times, cannot exist under so enervating a system: but may not the politeness of manners, and the delicacy of sentiment, which prevail over all Europe, render a savage courage unnecessary? Will not that gradation of manners, which diminishes personal bravery, at the same time render its exertion less wanted? Will it not subdue and melt down the ferocity of the passions, and the lust of dominion, the general causes of war?

The character of the late King of Prussia has been said strongly to resemble that of Philip of Macedon: this may be true respecting its grand outline, and some of the most remarkable strokes of it; but a more finished and perfect likeness may be found in that of Cæsar; the same martial spirit, undaunted resolution, and heroic fortitude; the same ready genius in difficult situations, strongly mark the similitude: it goes still farther, it extends to the nicer shades of the portrait of the mind; both had the same taste for philosophy; both were soldiers and men of study; both too were authors, and wrote the history of their victories.

The declamations of the present National Assembly of France are calculated solely to raise the passions of the multitude; their arguments are full of antithesis and point: the sentiments are often noble and striking, the language neat and polished. Was this senate-house a school for the cultivation of taste, and the improvement of composition, it would claim our approbation; but when we see the crude ideas of its members framed into

laws, we perceive the absurdity, and tremble for the consequence. The paradoxes of an abstract philosophy, can never be adapted to the real wants of mankind.

The two celebrated champions of aristocracy and democracy have found their warmest admirers in the zealots of a party: their merit, as authors, is overlooked in the contemplation of their principles; but if even their writings go down to posterity, they will be viewed with an eye to the composition. Burke will then be considered as a man of shining abilities, who has added to a comprehensive understanding every decoration of taste; Paine, as attempting to eke out the scantiness of his ideas, with puerile attempts at wit. The one dazzles us with the splendor of a flaming but inconstant light; the other leaves us to wander in a darkness that can be felt. The aristocrat has heaped up a vast pile of shining materials, which he has thrown together sometimes with a daring negligence, but more often with a most happy and dexterous art. The democrat has made the most of his rubbish, but cannot hide the littleness of his building: the advocate for monarchy, by giving the reins to a luxuriant genius, is sometimes ready to leap over the boundaries of common sense; the republican, by levelling every principle to the standard of an ideal equality, wanders into a cold and barren wilderness. Here we see a beautiful and glowing picture, which if deficient in some nicer shades, discovers the hand of a master; there we behold a rude unnatural outline, that speaks the dauber at every stroke: in a word, Burke will live to after-ages, the standard of eloquence, and the admiration of the world; Paine is already dwindling into that obscurity for which nature designed him: the politics of the  
day

day can alone support his claim to notice; let these but alter, and he perishes for ever.\*

How many arguments have been grounded on the pursuits of man in a civilized state, compared with a state of nature! All writers on this subject seem to allow that man was, and still is, capable of being a ruminating savage; but if we attend to the natural and moral history of human-kind, it is obvious that it is at present, ever was, and ever will be, in a state of nature. The term "artificial" can never with philosophical precision be applied to man. Look at the formation of the body, the position of the hands, feet, teeth, &c. all prove him to be an animal formed by nature to provide for his wants in a mode widely different from any other part of animated creation. Providence, at the same time that it denied him the sanguinary weapons of nature, refined the organization of his brain, made it susceptible of more numerous combinations, and elevated it to such a degree of perfection, that its emanations are dignified by the name of

*reason*, in contradistinction to the inferior instinct of brutes; hence the providing for his wants, by what is falsely called *artificial* means, is the only *natural* mode he can pursue; any other, copied from the pursuits of other animals, would be *artificial*, and inadequate. Nothing affects this argument, drawn from the present state of refinement, so conspicuous over all Europe; nothing from the improvement in arts and sciences. Man is organized in such a mode, that the progressive advancement of knowledge is natural and inherent. The talent of creating ideas by comparison and reflection enables him to make discoveries in every branch of science, and memory treasures up with a careful hand the stores of other times; thus something must be added every age to the common stock of knowledge, and the intellectual empire of the mind is continually extending: this progression is perfectly natural; it is as much the *necessary* pursuit of man, as the sanguinary chase to the tyger of the east, or the destruction of the sparrow to the swift-winged hawk.

TERRÆ-CULTOR.

## TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

AT a time when the affairs of France engross the attention of mankind, I presume the characters of some of the most celebrated persons now acting in that scene, supposed to be drawn by the pen of the celebrated Mirabeau, although under feigned names, cannot fail to be acceptable to your readers.

### GALLERY OF PORTRAITS.

#### NUMBER I.

M. de CONDORCET, distinguished under the Title of ZOHOR.

THE merit of Zohor is of a solid, not of a brilliant description. He passionately loves the friends of mankind, the friends of liberty, the friends of reason, and the friends of order. Esteemed by the judicious,

he is not the subject of vulgar panegyric. He has taken no care to obtain the friendship of those female cables, whose activity is so incessant to draw the man they favour out of his native obscurity. He has not endeavoured to secure to himself those splendid suffrages, that impose

\* We insert this as our correspondent's opinion, not our own; as we confess we think different from him in every point of view.

on the multitude. He is not anxious to be quoted in the noisy circles of agitation and passion. He has lived for himself and his friends, and he has lived a little for glory.

Zohor, inured to those profound meditations, which by means of arithmetical processes, change conjecture into demonstration, is probably unadapted for those turbulent discussions, which characterise numerous assemblies, thrown into fermentation by the variety of interests, the collision of passions, and the extraordinary crisis that may be expected to result. Unaccustomed to speak in public, he cannot command the resources of a Demosthenes, and is unable to subjugate the mind by the eloquence and energy of his diction.

But he amply compensates for the want of these brilliant qualifications, by a series of study, that enables him to discern what it is that will be useful to his country, and what are the remedies that her misfortunes demand.

Zohor is perhaps the last defender of that philosophy, sprung up in England, and received for a moment in France, the primeval cause of the revolution which is now taking place; that philosophy, which would produce the happiness of the world; if, restrained within proper limits, its advantages had never been exaggerated by enthusiastic advocates, and never proscribed by the apprehensive and the timid. If Zohor do not unfurl its standard like Voltaire, if he do not deify it like Diderot, it is however impossible to mistake his real sentiments; and we may say of him,

\* He seeks the shade, but first he would be seen."

He has invented nothing, and yet is infinitely superior to ordinary writers. Why? Because he has advanced and improved the art of

thinking. If his imagination be parsimonious and scanty, his judgment is luminous and sound; and he will prove of more real use to mankind, than twenty writers, that aspire with justice to the praise of genius.

A woman, who had formerly some reputation, attacked him with virulence\*, without being able to draw from him a word of reply. This philosophic moderation has been much praised, but little imitated.

Zohor enjoys a name, that his labours have made illustrious; all Europe does him this justice. Let it be observed, that extensive celebrity is no trifling possession, at a time, when the world appears to have conspired for the destruction of mediocrity, and is agreed to repulse with contempt the ambitious pretenders, that besiege on all sides the temple of renown.

One merit that belongs to Zohor, "is, to have extended the limits of "geometry, not only through all "the regions of natural science, but "also into questions of moral consideration, which are in their own "nature complicated, fortuitous "and variable. This observation "is perhaps matter enough for a "long winded panegyric; but we "content ourselves with dropping "a hint upon the subjects, without "undertaking a finished delineation."

A man soon becomes dissatisfied with what he already possesses, and the suffrage, we had almost said of the human species, does not content Zohor. He burns to seek for fame in a new career; already he regrets so many nights passed in the patience of calculation; he hastens to plunge himself in the ocean of politics, and seeks in the tempest of debate for a new source of glory.

Zohor is altogether averse to those numerous circles, where the female

\* The author probably alludes to the Marchioness de Sillery, in her treatise entitled Religion the Source of True Felicity.

female sex presides; where they stamp with their anathema those very works, whose merit they are unable to dispute; where they loudly applaud mediocrity, when united with a rank that may patronise or may persecute; where their stupid lovers are encouraged for no other purpose, than to make of them echos, which may spread far and wide the despotic degrees of this absolute senate.

He is a member of that academy, which Richelieu, who had a spice of the pedant, and not a grain of the philosopher, intended to compose of grammatical critics. But Zohor knows better than any man living,

how puerile it is to be busied about words when natural science presents us every year with a new phenomenon; when nature, hunted to the quick, continually suffers one and another of her secrets to escape her; and when commerce is at length become an object of ratiocination and science.

Zohor strictly conforms himself to the advice of his master and friend, the late M. d'Alembert, who used to say, that "the genuine sage was beneficent and kind towards every human being, familiar in the society of a few, intimate with only one."

## DESCRIPTION OF CARNICOBAR AND ITS INHABITANTS.

BY MR. C. HAMILTON.

FROM THE ASIATIC RESEARCHES, VOL. II.

**T**HE island, of which I propose to give a succinct account, is the northernmost of that cluster in the Bay of Bengal, which goes by the name of the Nicobars. It is low, of a round figure, about forty miles in circumference, and appears at a distance, as if entirely covered with trees: however, there are several well-cleared and delightful spots upon it. The soil is a black kind of clay, and marshy. It produces in great abundance, and with little care, most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, plantains, papayas, cocoa-nuts, and areca-nuts; also excellent yams, and a root called cachu. The only four-footed animals upon this island are hogs, dogs, large rats, and an animal of the lizard kind, but large, called by the natives tolonqui; these frequently carry off fowls and chickings. The only kind of poultry are hens, and those not in great plenty. There are abundance of snakes of many different kinds, and the inhabitants frequently die of their bites. The timber upon the island is of many sorts, in great

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plenty, and some of it remarkably large, affording excellent materials for building or repairing ships.

"The natives are low in stature but very well made, and surprisingly active and strong; they are copper-coloured, and their features have a cast of the Malay; quite the reverse of elegant. The women in particular are extremely ugly. The men cut their hair short, and the women have their heads shaved quite bare, and wear no covering but a short petticoat, made of a sort of rush or dry grass, which reaches half way down the thigh. This grass is not interwoven, but hangs round the person something like the thatching of a house. Such of them as have received presents of cloth-petticoats from the ships, commonly tie them round immediately under the arms. The men wear nothing but a narrow strip of cloth about the middle, in which they wrap up their privities so tight that there hardly is any appearance of them. The ears of both sexes are pierced when young, and by squeezing into the holes

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large

large plugs of wood, or hanging heavy weights of shells, they contrive to render them wide, and disagreeable to look at. They are naturally disposed to be good humoured and gay, and are very fond of sitting at table with Europeans, where they eat every thing that is set before them; and they eat most enormously. They do not care much for wine, but will drink bumpers of arrack as long as they can see. A great part of their time is spent in feasting and dancing. When a feast is held at any village, every one, that chuses, goes uninvited, for they are utter strangers to ceremony. At those feasts they eat immense quantities of pork, which is their favourite food. Their hogs are remarkably fat, being fed upon the cocoa-nut kernel and sea water; indeed all their domestic animals, fowls, dogs, &c. are fed upon the same. They have likewise plenty of small sea fish which they strike very dexterously with lances, wading into the sea about knee deep. They are sure of killing a very small fish at ten or twelve yards distance. They eat the pork almost raw, giving it only a hasty grill over a quick fire. They roast a fowl, by running a piece of wood through it, by way of spit, and holding it over a brisk fire, until the feathers are burnt off, when it is ready for eating, in their taste. They never drink water; only cocoa-nut milk and a liquor called *foura*, which oozes from the cocoa-nut tree after cutting off the young sprouts or flowers. This they suffer to ferment before it is used, and then it is intoxicating, to which quality they add much by their method of drinking it, by sucking it slowly through a small straw. After eating, the young men and women, who are fancifully dressed with leaves, go to dancing, and the old people surround them smoking tobacco and drinking *foura*. The dancers, while performing, sing some of their tunes which are far from wanting har-

mony, and to which they keep exact time. Of musical instruments they have only one kind, and that the simplest. It is a hollow bamboo about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet long and three inches in diameter, along the outside of which there is stretched from end to end a single string made of the threads of a split cane, and the place under the string is hollowed a little to prevent it from touching. This instrument is played upon in the same manner as a guitar. It is capable of producing but few notes; the performer however makes it speak harmoniously, and generally accompanies it with the voice.

"What they know of physic is small and simple. I had once occasion to see an operation in surgery performed on the toe of a young girl, who had been stung by a scorpion or centipede. The wound was attended with a considerable swelling, and the little patient seemed in great pain. One of the natives produced the under jaw of a small fish, which was long, and planted with two rows of teeth as sharp as needles; taking this in one hand, and a small stick by way of hammer in the other, he stuck the teeth three or four times into the swelling, and made it bleed freely: the toe was then bound up with certain leaves, and next day the child was running about perfectly well.

"Their houses are generally built upon the beach in villages of fifteen or twenty houses each; and each house contains a family of twenty persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars about ten feet from the ground; they are round, and having no windows, look like bee-hives, covered with thatch. The entry is through a trap door below, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. This manner of building is intended to secure the houses from being infested with snakes, and rats, and for that purpose the pillars are bound round with a smooth kind of leaf, which prevents



prevents animals from being able to mount; besides which each pillar has a broad flat piece of wood near the top of it, the projecting of which effectually prevents the further progress of such vermin as may have passed the leaf. The flooring is made with thin strips of bamboos laid at such distances from one another, as to leave free admission for light and air, and the inside is neatly finished and decorated with fishing lances, nets, &c.

"The art of making cloth of any kind is quite unknown to the inhabitants of this island; what they have is got from the ships that come to trade in cocoa-nuts. In exchange for their nuts (which are reckoned the finest in this part of India) they will accept of but few articles; what they chiefly wish for is cloth of different colours, hatchets, and hanger blades, which they use in cutting down the nuts. Tobacco and arrack they are very fond of, but expect these in presents. They have no money of their own, nor will they allow any value to the coin of other countries, further than as they happen to fancy them for ornaments; the young women sometimes hanging strings of dollars about their necks. However they are good judges of gold and silver, and it is no easy matter to impose baser metals upon them, as such.

"They purchase a much larger quantity of cloth, than is consumed upon their own island. This is intended for the Choury market. Choury is a small island to the southward of theirs, to which a large fleet of their boats sails every year about the month of November, to exchange cloth for canoes; for they cannot make these themselves. This voyage they perform by the help of the sun and stars, for they know nothing of the compass.

"In their disposition there are two remarkable qualities. One is their entire neglect of compliment and ceremony, and the other, their aversion to dishonesty. A Carni-

cobarian travelling to a distant village upon business or amusement, passes through many towns in his way without perhaps speaking to any one: if he is hungry or tired, he goes up into the nearest house, and helps himself to what he wants, and sits till he is rested, without taking the smallest notice of any of the family, unless he has business or news to communicate. Theft or robbery is so very rare among them, that a man going out of his house, never takes away his ladder, or shuts his door, but leaves it open for any body to enter that pleases, without the least apprehension of having any thing stolen from him.

"Their intercourse with strangers is so frequent, that they have acquired in general the barbarous Portuguese, so common over India; their own language has a sound quite different from most others, their words being pronounced with a kind of stop, or catch in the throat, at every syllable.

"They have no notion of a God, but they believe firmly in the devil, and worship him from fear. In every village there is a high pole erected with long strings of ground-rattans hanging from it, which, it is said has the virtue to keep him at a distance. When they see any signs of an approaching storm, they imagine that the devil intends them a visit, upon which many superstitious ceremonies are performed. The people of every village march round their own boundaries, and fix up at different distances small sticks split at the top, into which split they put a piece of cocoa-nut, a wisp of tobacco, and the leaf of a certain plant: whether this is meant as a peace offering to the devil, or a scarecrow to frighten him away, does not appear.

"When a man dies, all his live stock, cloth, hatchets, fishing lances, and in short every moveable thing he possessed, is buried with him, and his death is mourned by the whole village. In one view this is an ex-

cellent custom, seeing it prevents all disputes about the property of the deceased among his relations. His wife must conform to custom by having a joint cut off from one of her fingers; and, if she refuses this, she must submit to have a deep notch cut in one of the pillars of her house.

"I was once present at the funeral of an old woman. When we went into the house, which had belonged to the deceased, we found it full of her female relations; some of them were employed in wrapping up the corpse in leaves and cloth, and others tearing to pieces all the cloth which had belonged to her. In another house hard by, the men of the village, with a great many others from the neighbouring towns, were sitting drinking *soura* and smoking tobacco. In the mean time two stout young fellows were busily digging a grave in the sand near the house. When the women had done with the corpse, they set up a most hideous howl, upon which the people began to assemble round the grave, and four men went up into the house to bring down the body; in doing this they were much interrupted by a young man, son to the deceased, who endeavoured with all his might to prevent them, but finding it in vain, he clung round the body, and was carried to the grave along with it: there, after a violent struggle, he was turned away and conducted back to the house. The corpse being now put into the grave, and the lashings, which bound the legs and arms cut, all the live stock, which had been the property of the deceased, consisting of about half a dozen hogs, and as many fowls, was killed, and flung in above it; a man then approached with a bunch of leaves stuck upon the end of a pole, which he swept two or three times gently along the corpse, and then the grave was filled up. During the ceremony, the women continued to make the most horrible vocal concert imaginable: the men said no-

thing. A few days afterwards, a kind of monument was erected over the grave, with a pole upon it, to which long strips of cloth of different colours were hung.

"Polygamy is not known among them; and their punishment of adultery is not less severe than effectual. They cut, from the man's offending member, a piece of the foreskin proportioned to the frequent commission or enormity of the crime.

"There seems to subsist among them a perfect equality. A few persons, from their age, have a little more respect paid to them; but there is no appearance of authority one over another.

"The inhabitants of the Andamans are said to be cannibals. The people of Carnicobar have a tradition among them, that several canoes came from Andaman many years ago, and that the crews were all armed, and committed great depredations, and killed several of the Nicobarians. It appears at first remarkable, that there should be such a wide difference between the manners of the inhabitants of islands so near one another; the Andamans being savage cannibals, and the others, the most harmless inoffensive people possible. But it is accounted for by the following historical anecdote, which, I have been assured, is matter of fact. Shortly after the Portuguese had discovered the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, one of their ships, on board of which were a number of Mozambique negroes, was lost on the Andaman islands, which were till then uninhabited. The blacks remained in the island and settled it: the Europeans made a small shallop in which they sailed to Pegu. On the other hand, the Nicobar islands were peopled from the opposite main, and the coast of Pegu; in proof of which, the Nicobar and Pegu languages are said, by those acquainted with the latter, to have much resemblance.

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## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## FOREIGN.

GESCHICHTI DER VERFALL DER  
SITTEN, DER WISSENCHAFTEN,  
UND SPRACHEN, DER RÖMER,  
&c.; or, *History of the Decay  
of Manners, Sciences, and Language,  
among the Romans, in the first Ages  
of the Christian Era.* Vienna.  
1791.

THIS work, which is the production of M. Meiners, aulic councillor and professor in the university of Gottingen, is designed as an introduction to Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. In Gibbon's work are many chasms, which are greatly regretted by those who read for instruction. They do not expect to find an author, so deep in politics, pass so slightly over the gradual decay of manners, public education, arts, and sciences, objects so closely connected with the fate of empires. To remedy this inconvenience, M. Meiners has taken up the pen; and although his work is only a collection of facts drawn from ancient historians, yet it must be confessed he has chosen this with judgment, and connected them with art.

In the latter ages of the Roman republic, liberty has degenerated into a general relaxation of morals and politics. The people, sold to the ambition of the heads of parties, shewed energy only in crimes. The great were either sanguinary tyrants, or wretches plunged in effeminacy. Boldness in the women, took place of courage in the men. Children, seduced by example, were corrupted even in their infancy. In a word, a general depravity announced the approaching destruction of the state. But an edifice which is the work of ages, requires time to destroy. Every thing tended thereto under the emperors. M. Meiners

shews, that the corruption of the inhabitants of Rome surpassed that of any modern nation. It is the nature of depravity of manners to go on always augmenting, and nothing can stop the effects of it.

The divisions of this work separately treat of despotism, the natural consequence of depravity of manners; progress of that despotism and depravity; libertinism; luxury of the table; effeminacy and idleness in the superior classes; their puerile vanity, ridiculous expences, interior misery, and external ostentation; the decay of arts and sciences, and even of the language.

Of despotism he observes, that the absolute power assumed by the Triumvirs and Cæsar, were less the effects of the ambition of individuals, than of the vices of the nation in general. The rapacity of the great, the licentiousness of the many, and the imbecility of the magistrates, were arrived at such a height, that, according to the confession of Tacitus, all reasonable people were desirous that Octavius should assume an authority, which those, in whom the laws had placed it, were unable to exercise. A change was become inevitable, and in such a situation, the usurpation of Augustus was a benefit. From a state of insolence to that of the meanest submission is but a short step, and the successors of Octavius thought themselves entitled to treat the Romans as a people born to be slaves.

Of the progress of despotism he observes, that Tiberius did much evil, but always under an appearance of justice: his successors were less scrupulous; they did wrong openly, and without taking the trouble to conceal their motives. The Romans applauded Nero, and encouraged Heliogabalus.

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Of libertinism he says, that an aversion to marriage constantly increased, and the most abominable liberties became every day more common. The assertions of the poets, Juvenal, Martial, and Petronius, appear exaggerations, were they not supported by the testimony of Suetonius, Lampridius, and other historians, and even by Seneca. The obscenity of their ideas had infected their language, as appears by the writings which have reached our time. The sexes seem to have changed their natures; and so abandoned were the women, that Alexander Severus drove an immense number out of Italy, and imprisoned others, but found himself obliged afterwards, from their number, to liberate them.

In the luxury of the table, the Romans adopted all the ill customs of the people whom they conquered, and even surpassed them. After the conquest of Egypt, gluttony became a fashion, and the refinements therein were pushed to a degree of extravagance. The luxury of Apicius, Octavius, Anthony, Nero, Vitellius, Heliogabalus, and their expences in consequence thereof, were incredible.

By this sketch we may judge of the author's enquiries into the manners of the Romans, all the consequences of immense power and riches, and which we see even now too much of, in those countries which possess immense wealth.

**FLORA COCHINCHINENSIS ; or, The Flora of Cochinchina, containing an Account of the Plants which grow in that Country, and also of some Plants which grow in China, the East-Indies, and Africa, arranged according to the System of Linnæus. By J. de Louriera. 2 Vol. 4to.**

The author of this work lived thirty-six years as a missionary in

Cochin-China and the adjoining countries. His knowledge in mathematics and medicine having acquired him some consideration, he endeavoured to augment it by obtaining a knowledge of the simples found in that country, which led him to study botany. In total want of books in that science, he applied to some Europeans, whom commerce had brought to Canton, and from an English captain, who had brought out some botanical books for his own use, he received as a present the two works of Linnæus, *On the Genders of Plants*, and *On the System of Nature*. Furnished with these aids, in a short time he was in a state to examine plants hitherto unknown, and to assign them their proper place in the system of vegetables, which is a new proof of the advantage of the Linnæan method. The discoveries of our botanist were so essential, that Bergius, and the younger Linnæus in his supplement, have made use of them. During a residence of some years at Canton, Mr. Louriera became acquainted with many of the medicinal plants of China, which he has inserted in his work, as also many vegetables of Bengal, Malabar, Sumatra, and Mosambique: all which he has distinguished by peculiar marks, to distinguish each country; has examined them himself, and has described them with the greatest exactness. The number of new genders and species are considerable. He has ranged them all under the 24 classes of Linnæus.

It is very fortunate that the descriptions given by Mr. Louriera are very diffuse, since he has not given us any plates. Having been too liberal in communicating his dried plants to the amateurs, he has been obliged to leave many of them undescribed. On the whole, this work is an useful present to the lovers of botany.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS INTO NORWAY, DENMARK, AND RUSSIA, IN 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791, AND 1792. By A. Swinton. 8vo. London, 1792.

MR. SWINTON, who now gives us an account of his travels, was a relation of the late Admiral Greig's. He embarked for Russia in an English vessel, and landed at Riga; from whence he proceeded by land to Petersburg, at which place our author resided some time, and had therefore a good opportunity to make his remarks on the country, the people, their manners, and customs. We cannot follow our author through the vast variety of matter which he has given to the public, a great part of which is by no means new; but to afford our readers an idea of this work, we cannot do better than to give them an abstract from the first letter.

North Sea, October, 1788.

Dear Sir,

I have again ventured upon the faithless deep, and to such a peripatetic philosopher as myself it makes very little difference where he goes.

This is my third expedition to the north: it is a strange whim to get in love with deserts, with ice and with snow.

I delight to see nature in her winter uniform; to be surrounded with rugged rocks and frozen oceans.

This is the dreary season of the year. Few vessels are now plowing the main, unless those steering homewards to their native shores. The winds are, however, favourable to us: the sea nymphs, in the shape of billows, push our ship along.

I sit down for the purpose of writing to you, by a snug fire in the cabin; but the ship rolls in such a manner, that it is with difficulty I can either hold my pen or keep my temper. Perhaps it is the kraken that moves his huge sides under me? where shall I find a tub large enough to be thrown out to such a whale; whose eyes behold his tail at the distance of three miles? surely the works of creation are sufficient of themselves to fill and expand the human mind, though they should not derive any additional grandeur from the affrighted imagination.

Pontoppidan gravely records the history of the kraken from heretofore, although he

resided in Norway, into whose creeks this fish sometimes wandered; but getting aground, died and infected the air with its effluvia. The reverend bishop does not even aver that he himself was incommoded with this scent: he only mentions those who had.

Pontoppidan has, however, produced more certain evidence of the existence of the sea worm, who drags along his flow length of about one hundred yards. This may well satisfy the admirers of monsters.

Eged, a respectable Norwegian writer, in a voyage to Greenland, gives an account of this serpent, which he himself beheld: but he laughs at the credulity of his countrymen, in regard to their tales concerning the kraken.

In the year 1786, a Norwegian shipmaster and his mate made oath before the magistrates of Dundee, that they had seen a large fish, within a few leagues of the coast of Scotland, which they judged to be three miles in length.

Unfortunately, they described it as resembling the sea worm. There is no doubt but that it was this animal; and candid indulgence must attribute their mistake to their fright.

Some philosophers have imagined the existence of a proportion betwixt the size of animals and the planet they inhabit: for instance, they give to Saturn, human animals of sixty feet in stature; but for this hypothesis, there does not seem to be any analogy in nature. On the contrary, the inhabitants of cold climates, and philosophers suppose that the climate of Saturn is cold, are generally the smallest in stature. If these philosophers are right in their conjectures, the people of Mercury will not exceed seven or nine inches in height.

Creative power has indeed, as far as it has come within our knowledge, observed a certain proportion between the extent of land and that of waters; and between the animals natives of the one, and the animals inhabitants of the other; but it does not appear that nature intended a proportion between men and mountains. The proportion in size between land and sea animals, is not only exact, but even their likeness to each other; as the sea lion, the sea horse, the sea dog: and although the whale is much larger than the elephant, the former does not apparently much exceed the latter in strength: besides, the existence of land animals larger than the elephant, has been proved beyond a doubt. Until, therefore, a land animal is found, one, or two, or three miles in length, the existence of the kraken will always be disputed. Milton alludes to this fabulous animal—

—or that sea beast,

Leviathan, which God of all his works  
Created hugest that swim th' ocean stream:  
Him, haply slumb'ring on the Norway  
foam.

On the third day after we left the shores of Britain, the rocks of Norway appeared, heaving their rugged precipices awfully above the waves that foamed underneath. I renewed my acquaintance with every hill and mountain, and hailed the ancient domains of our conquerors.

Norway, extending one thousand miles, from the Naze to the North Cape, is one continued grouse of rocks, hills, mountains, and hanging woods. Norway has her mines of gold and silver too, but these seem intended by nature rather for ornament than use. Her real wealth, and what perhaps is more real wealth than gold, consists in her forests of timber, her iron and copper mines, and her fisheries.

The Norwegians very early distinguished themselves in naval expeditions; but unfortunately they have only retained their conquests in the north. They planted colonies in Iceland and Greenland, and, from a party of these colonists are descended the Esquimaux, who dwell upon the dreary coasts of Labradore. Sometimes under kings of their own, sometimes under the Danish monarchs, they frequently invaded England, Scotland, and Ireland. Denmark, during her former greatness, ruling over Sweden, and all the kingdoms around the Baltic; the name and actions of the Norwegians were lost in that of Danes. At this day, Norway is the only remain of all the Danish conquests---if, indeed, it can now be considered as a conquest; for it had shaken off the Danish yoke for many years before the famous Margaret, daughter of Waldemar, king of Denmark, and wife of Hacquin, king of Norway, effected the union of these two nations.

We were abreast of the Naze just as the lights blazed forth. They are exceedingly useful upon such a dangerous coast, and light-houses are therefore established, at proper places, all along from this cape to Elfsneur. They were originally erected for the benefit of the subjects of the Danish government, who, very reasonably, demanded of foreigners trading to the east seas, a proportion of the expence. This being readily complied with, the Danes began to think of making those lights a matter of revenue, and yearly increase the dues. As their dominions lay at the entrance of the Baltic, no ships could pass quietly without their permission.

Their extortions at last offended the Hance-towns, the Dutch, and the English. After much contest, the Danes lowered the Sound duties, and all nations acquiesced in paying the rates then fixed.

The rapid increase of trade within these hundred years, has made this part of the revenues of Denmark very considerable, and the most certain of any they have: it is a revenue of which no other nation has the like---it is entirely independent of the subjects.

The navigation from the Naze to Elfsneur is the most dangerous in the world, particularly at this season of the year; and to add to our affliction, there is no moonlight. Here are no regular tides, but rapid currents, setting or running, according as the winds, or other circumstances, influence them.

It is Saturday night: the mariners, forgetting the dangers of the seas, are making merry in the steerage, and drinking the healths of their wives and sweethearts: every seaman is supposed to have the one or the other, if not both. These pleasing entertainments of the heart are reliefs from care, and cheer the brave and honest sailor, amidst his hardships and perils.

I continued upon the deck this evening until eleven o'clock. The waves roll after us with more violence than ever: it is owing to the current, and to the narrow straight we are now entering, called the Sleeve, the Categate and this making the figure of an arm.

The sable night hangs his dark brown curtain over us---the storm whistles in the shrouds---no objects are distinguishable but the twinkling of the Naze lights, and the white foaming billows that roar around us. Palinurus watches at the helm; the mariners talk together of dangers and shipwrecks.

A FORTNIGHT'S RAMBLE TO THE  
LAKES IN WESTMORELAND,  
LANCASHIRE, AND CUMBER-  
LAND. By a Rambler.

Who the author of this is we know not; we only perceive, that his intention is to keep his readers in spirits. Our author came, it seems, from Margate in the hoy to London; and as his description of that voyage is not the most delicate, we shall omit it.

His second and third chapters are good specimens of the work.

Set off in the Leeds mail coach with a fair wind and a scowling sky; our company consisted of my friend, a Sheffield manufacturer, a maiden lady of a certain age with a large band box, big enough to have purloined a Jemmy jumps, but which we will suppose was better furnished with bead ornaments to surprise a country vil-  
lage.



lage. We had an opportunity of examining each other's faces for about an hour, and then the evening became very "sirish," "madamish," and on the part of little Sheffield, rather "snoringish;" we wanted a refreshment of tea to make us chatty. While it was preparing, the honest Yorkshireman took off his wig, and was turning the curls nicely over his fore finger, to the great disgust and surprize of the lady. He tried all that putting on his wig, and begging pardon, could do, but her stomach had received so severe a shock, she declared "the man" had spoiled her breakfast. However she was afterwards pleased to open her family budget, and began to be more familiar; but the poor culprit was never more honoured with a word or even a look. I suppose a concatenation of ideas would have made her sick if she had seen the wig; and he was so dumbfounded we entirely lost him, until a carriage came to meet her. Her family head bridled up at this distinction, and she withed us a "good afternoon" with an air of superiority.

Her departure was a signal for little Sheffield to begin, his countenance brightened up, and we found him, barring a few grammatical errors, as clever a man as you could meet with on a summer's day. He gave us an account of the trade of his native town, and entered, in a workmanlike manner, into the manufacturing part of it. He told us what branches flourish most now, and what must always succeed; how the town became commercial, owing to the pride and severity of the citizens of York to some foreign artisans, by whipping them out of the city. They not only thought this ill-judged cruelty meritorious, but keep an holiday in remembrance of it, and that trade has never held up its head in York since, though so well situated for it. In all his conclusions he never spoke favourably of any thing that had not honesty to regulate it. He had signed the addrets to his majesty about the proclamation, and said, "for what could we hope for more than what we have; to be sure there are people that wish to kick up hubblytys in Sheffield, but they are more noise than numbers."

The little wig vanished, and I esteemed him full as much as if he had been decorated with a ramilled peruke. Had we not been so near his house, we should have had a more extensive lesson of ingenuity; but the misfortune is, man is too apt to find out the value of any thing when he is about to lose it.

It was half past two on Monday morning when we reached Leeds, our cloaths being thoroughly drenched in the boat of the mail coach, from the overflowing of the Trent; the devastation in Leicestershire and parts of Northamptonshire and Not-

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tinghamshire was dreadful; the low grounds were covered with water, and a considerable quantity of hay was hanging on the hedges in the lanes, and even on the high road.

At five the same morning we got into a cross-country coach for Kendall; we passed through a chain of valleys, frequently keeping the Leeds canal and a river in view; the most disagreeable part was the jolting of the clumsy coach with a lazy pair of horses: as long as it was light, the variety of scene kept us in amusement; but it was no sooner dark than every shake of the carriage had an uncomfortable effect. I tried to sleep, but tried in vain; and we thought it an age before we reached Kendall, which was past twelve o'clock.--- Sleep, to use the language of honest Sancha Panca, "covered me with a cloak," and presented me after ten hours oblivion with a cheerful flow of spirits.

At eleven we set off for Leven's along the banks of the Ken, which winds its clear course among rich pastures, stocked with lusty cattle, hanging woods, ragged rocks, and thick hayfields; we were often charmed with the noise of the river, foaming down broad weirs; near one of them, close to the powder mills, is a stout bridge, whose arches extend from rock to rock covered with verdure; we sat near it half an hour watching abundance of salmon attempting to rise the fall, and some times leaping sideways at a fly, all of them appearing eager to get up, some succeeded to the first rise of the fall, and some fell again into the foam.

How delightfully we were seated to hear the music of the river!--to see the banks clothed with hanging trees of various green, and under a certain bushy part on the opposite side, large drops were tinkling down, raising distinct and high effects!--I felt that charming placidness within me, that convinced me I am a son of nature; we left with regret this scene, but only to enjoy other beauties.

About a mile from the mills, and to the left of the river, we entered Leven's park, passing through a long avenue of lime and beech trees, still keeping the Ken which divides the park, stocked with deer on both sides: we had here a sight of the sands, with two vessels at anchor; I was struck with the recollection of having seen the sea four hundred miles off in as many days; but this instantly gave way to the respect I felt, in admiring the matchless work of nature.

On approaching the house, we perceived they were busy in housing hay, and saw a gentleman and two ladies come out of the garden: anxious to see all we could, yet fearful to be thought intruding, we were asking questions from one of the hay-

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men,

men, when the gentleman politely came to us, and offered to show us the house:— he was steward to the lady Andover, and had come that day to overlook the workmen.

The house is turreted, and has stone winding steps to the leads, from which you have a prospect charmingly variegated and backed by high mountains; the rooms are generally of oak, and several of them are decorated with the Bellingham arms with different quarterings; these too are painted in the windows. In the great hall there are several coats of armour; one breast plate appears to have had a ball dented against it: the sealons are curiously expressed by carved figures in the waincot with verses under them in old fashioned rhyme: the beds are very old, and the curtains are as ragged as a pair of colours that might have belonged to a distinguished regiment that was at the battle of Blenheim; the tapestry is expressive of religious and moral subjects, but it does not seem the work of good looms, perhaps it was made before that kind of weaving was brought to the perfection of the last century.

Every part of this respectable house, except what was once wove, may yet last for ages. The waincot and floors are in thorough repair; and the latter shone so bright, I was obliged to tread with caution lest I should tumble; much as the Bellinghams have to regret the loss of these estates, they are in hands that pay attention to repairs, for I never saw an old uninhabited house taken such care of.

We were regaled by a liquor called Morroco, which is made in no other place in the kingdom, and has been peculiar to it time out of mind; it is of a high colour, and is made from malt and hops; has an acid taste, and does not ferment; for, if it was to be left in a glass for a week, they say it would be equally good as at the moment it was poured out; I confess I relished it, perhaps because there is none of the same sort any where else.

As the steward must have business to transact, my friend and I walked to Haverham, a village upon a hill, famous for a school that has produced some great scholars, and recently unfortunate by two youths being drowned near Leven's; this accident, which near town would only occasion the general gloom of a minute, seemed to throw sorrow over the face of the sexton, whilst he shewed us the grave.

We shall conclude with a description of Ullswater Lake.

We took a chaise to Ullswater to accommodate our obliging old gentleman, and had a charming ride by the banks of the Eamont. We passed through Mr. Haff-

fel's park, in front of a handsome stone house; on opening the right wing, the garden has a striking effect; the grounds are irregular, and have an excellent object in Dunmallart Head; we rounded the bottom of this hill, still beautiful though despoiled of many trees; it is so regularly cut down, it reminded me of the shaved heads of the Hindoos; it was once a Roman station, as I make no doubt every hill was in this part of the country that is at the entrance of a valley; but the numbers of works carried on upon them centuries ago have obliterated every trace of them.

We procured a boat, and I will begin by our setting off. The low hills to the right were covered with sheep and cattle, that were lashing their sides on the summit, and the sky seen under their bellies gives a beautiful and delineating shape of them: neat houses were scattered along the banks. The left looks naked, but variegated with some cottages, and the green reward of their labour around them: these are overtopped by steep fells. When you reach the first arm Swarth Fell appears rugged and steep: this mountain will always be remembered by the providential escape of the father of the present Mr. Haffel; being in a fox chase on its summit, his eagerness threw him into a situation that rendered it impossible for him to return; he, therefore, dismounted, and pressed as close as possible to his horse; thus supporting each other through this perilous stage, they arrived safe at the bottom, in presence of many spectators, and where no person was ever known before or since to have descended:—the horse is remembered as well as the man; and "White Stockings" was permitted to range the rest of her life, with the best fodder and attention a grateful master could bestow upon her.

Opposite to Swarth Fell there is a farm house upon the site of an old church, the ground about it being the rich elbow I admired when upon Helvellyn. From the line of wildness on your left you open the lively vale of Martindale, whose fells are famous for the wild stag. In Water Nook we fired a small cannon, and heard an echo, which might have been tolerable if we had not been upon Kewick Lake. We then made Gowborough Park an object, whose plain and sides were full of deer; innumerable cattle were on the borders of the lake, and cooling themselves in it.

We had a superb view of Helvellyn, rearing his broad shoulders over many hills. The mind cannot conceive a more solemn sight, and the imagination would be too much stretched, if you was not to turn your head to the vale of Martindale, which is as smiling as verdure can make it.

**A DISSONANCE OF THE FOUR GENERALLY RECEIVED EVANGELISTS, AND THE EVIDENCE OF THEIR RESPECTIVE AUTHENTICITY EXAMINED.** By Edward Evanfon, M.A. Ipswich, 8vo. 1792.

In books of controversy upon religious matters we seldom dip, but the present seems to have a strong claim to our attention. In the preface our author observes, "that in both the general spirit and particular precepts of the religion of Jesus Christ there is something so amiable, so obviously conducing to the diminution of misery and the diffusion of comfort and happiness amongst mankind, that, it may reasonably be presumed, no man duly acquainted with that beautiful, that perfect system of morality, can be so unfeeling for the concerns of his fellow-creatures, and so little a real friend to himself, as not to wish the truth of the gospel revelation could be so satisfactorily demonstrated as to convince the minds of men of all degrees and stations, and induce them, not merely to profess to receive it, for that alone can answer no desirable purpose, but, conscientiously to make it the rule of their lives and conduct at all times and on all occasions, both in public and in private. To accomplish this, it is, in the first place, absolutely necessary that its celestial origin and authenticity should be fully and clearly ascertained, and no just cause left for doubt and uncertainty about it; for the least room for doubting in such a case throws so considerable a weight into the scale of immediate self-interest and our natural appetites and infirmities, as renders it next to impossible that its precepts should have any valuable efficacy upon him who doubts; notwithstanding all the prudential suggestions of modern preachers, that he who walketh regionally walketh surely."

And further he says, "under this dilemma, thinking the certainty of either the truth or falsehood of a revelation of the will of God to be of the highest importance, the author of the following disquisition, at once to satisfy his own mind and to qualify himself for a faithful and beneficial performance of the duties of the Christian ministry, for which he had been educated, many years ago determined to study the scriptures diligently, with no other illustration than what they reflect upon each other; and more especially those prophetic parts of them which, if duly fulfilled, must afford the strongest and most convincing evidence of the divine authority of the revelation itself, and almost necessarily lead to a right understanding of the nature of that religious covenant to which they bear a supernatural attestation."

Mr. Evanfon then proceeds to examine the dissonance, which he does very much at length. Of the gospel of St. Matthew he says—

In observing critically the gospel attributed to St. Matthew, the first circumstance to be remarked is, that the author himself gives not the slightest hint to suggest to us who he was, much less that he was an apostle of Jesus Christ; so that the mere opinion of the fathers of the orthodox church of the second century is all the foundation there is for its being called St. Matthew's, which, we have seen, is not the case with St. Luke's histories. The next is, that all those early writers, who inform us St. Matthew wrote a gospel, assure us he wrote it in Hebrew; and that our copy is a translation of it into Greek, by what hand is uncertain. The work itself however has by no means the appearance of an uniform translation from any language: for one can hardly suppose that any person not duly skilled in the Greek language would undertake to translate it; and whilst the greatest part of it is exceeding bad Greek, abounding with barbarous idioms, which is not to be accounted for if the translator was properly qualified for the work, there are many passages and several of them of considerable length, which are not only expressed in pure and elegant diction, but are nearly word for word the same as they stand in the gospel

according to St. Luke. This last circumstance is so obviously remarkable both in this and the gospel according to St. Mark, that to account for so improbable a fact, Grotius, Mills, and every candid critic, who has adopted the orthodox persuasion that these Gospels were written in the same order in which the canon of the church hath placed them, have been forced to acknowledge that, it is evident, the writer of one must have transcribed from the other: and that therefore when Mark wrote his gospel he must have had Matthew's before him, and Luke both the others. But it is absolutely impossible for me to suppose that Silas or Luke, who suffered so much and so disinterestedly to testify the truth of the gospel, could profess to write accurately and in order an account of those acts and doctrines of Jesus, which were taught them by those who had been eye-witnesses of his ministry, and were his chosen apostles; and yet, with the written account of an apostle before his eyes, not only in many places, invert the order of the narration, but differ greatly from him in the circumstances attending some of the most remarkable facts, and in others directly contradict him. Besides, in Luke, those verbally corresponding passages of the different gospels are regular coherent parts of one uniform, well composed whole; whereas in St. Matthew they are quite incongruous to the rest of the language in which the book is written, and like the ill-suited passages of those inconsistent poems condemned by Horace, *purpurei late splendent panni*. It must be observed also, that these two gospels of Matthew and Mark abound in instances of Latin words written in Greek letters; I do not mean proper names nor even the names of coins, weights or measures, such as the Romans perhaps made use of even in the most distant provinces, but military terms and words of common use in every language. Instead of the Greek words which St. Luke, Josephus, and I believe every other Greek writer within the limits of the first century, use for taxes or tribute, legion, spearman, watch or guard, centurion, to scourge, and some others, they give us the names by which the Romans expressed them in their own language written in Greek characters; a circumstance, which though, in itself, not fully demonstrative of the age in which they were really written, when corroborated by other evidence of their spuriousness, is of considerable weight to convince us that these two gospels cannot be older than the beginning of the second century; and, therefore, the writer called St. Matthew might very probably see and transcribe from the gospel according to St. Luke, and the pretended Mark from both. Let us examine each gospel in its turn.

The two first chapters of Matthew contain so many wonderful facts repugnant both to the other scriptures and to common sense, and so entirely unsupported by any other history sacred or profane, that many persons both of the present and former ages have rejected them as a forgery added by some other writer to the work of St. Matthew, (as, I persuade myself, I have demonstrated to have been the case with St. Luke's gospel) and that this book also originally began at the third chapter, with the baptism of John; though there is no proper beginning of a history at that chapter, as there evidently is in St. Luke's. But to me, who find full as many extraordinary facts, equally inadmissible, in the two last chapters, and several more in the body of the work, the whole appears to be of equal authenticity, or rather equally spurious and false. With the reader's leave, therefore we will take a cursory review of the whole.

Of the genealogy, with which this gospel begins, it is unnecessary to remark its irreconcilable contradiction to that introduced into St. Luke's gospel, because it has been so generally noticed by all commentators and must strike the most superficial reader, as it traces Joseph's descent from David through a line totally different: I only wonder that, under such a circumstance, any rational creature can be found who can really believe both these contradictory pedigrees to be true, and, what is still more, the inspired word of God. My intent, therefore, is only to point out the glaring inconsistency of the author, on this occasion, with himself.

This will serve to afford our readers a slight idea of this work, which is equally ingenious and laborious; and that no unjust opinion of it may go forth, we shall insert his concluding paragraph.

Such, candid reader, are the arguments, which have induced the author of these pages to regard so large a part of the canonical scriptures as spurious fictions of no authority, and undeserving the attention of a disciple of Jesus Christ. What effect they may have upon thy mind is not in his power to determine: but whosoever will attentively examine those writings, which, thus convinced, he refuses to admit into his creed, will find that they alone have given cause for that voluminous inundation of school-divinity, and those endless theological controversies that have for so many ages oppressed the literature and fatigued the patience of Europe; that they alone have been the source of those wild, irrational systems, which have so long misled people

from

from the plain, straight perspicuous paths of true religion, into the manifold, devious wanderings of that obscure labyrinth of fabulous superstition, whose impious, doctrines having nothing to do with reason, and applying only to the passions have so exasperated the minds of men against each other, and so inhumanly, as well as unchristianly, hardened their hearts, as to produce frequently in every nation of christendom, under the plea of godly zeal, scenes of barbarous violence and brutal cruelty exceeding even those, which, in a neighbouring country, have lately shocked our feelings, occasioned by a paroxysm of that political phrensy into which the inhabitants had been fatally and most unwisely agitated; doctrines which, (since statesmen have been wise enough to discourage the spirit of religious persecution,) have filled the nominally christian world with a continually increasing variety of sects, both the teachers and disciples of which, according to the prophetic description long since given of them by the apostle Paul, though from infancy to old age they are ever learning, are never able to attain a rational, satisfactory intelligence of the religion they continue to profess, nor to come to the knowledge of the obvious and simple, but important truths of the new covenant of the gospel.

A LETTER FROM MR. BURKE TO A MEMBER OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, IN ANSWER TO SOME OBJECTIONS TO HIS BOOK ON FRENCH AFFAIRS. *Third Edition.* Paris printed. London reprinted, for Doddsley. 8vo. 2s. 1791.

In this second publication, Mr. Burke's only intention seems to accumulate every possible abuse on the new system of France, without even regarding arrangement, argument, and almost without that specious elegance which has hitherto distinguished all his writings. That beautiful order which concentrates the voice of the people, and unites popular representation with perfect tranquillity, without the ebriety and perjury, which disgrace the elections of Great Britain, is called the "ladder of representation, by which your workmen ascend from their parochial tyranny to their fe-

deral anarchy." "I can never be convinced," continues he, "that the scheme of placing the highest powers of the state in churchwardens and constables, and other such officers, guided by Jew brokers, pert apprentices, clerks, shop-boys, hair-dressers, fidlers, and dancers on the stage, &c." Such indiscriminate abuse is surely unbecoming a gentleman, and inconsistent with the character of a philosopher. A state, in which we have now witnessed three general elections carried on upon the broadest principles, yet conducted without murder, without riot, and without confusion, shall we dare to call a "mean, low-minded, stupid contrivance, as well as perfectly detestable for its wickedness?"

We could hardly believe it, yet so long and so repeatedly does he accuse the people of France of low-mindedness and vulgarity, that at last he actually becomes perfectly vulgar himself. "I have read, Sir," says he, "the last manifesto, or *mountebank bill*, of the National Assembly." In a note, this is called "*the quackish address*." In speaking of the church, one should think Mr. Burke was describing it under the old government. "Have not men been made bishops for no other merit than having acted as instruments of atheists, in order to gorge the gang of usurers, pedlars and itinerant Jew discounters at the corners of streets, starved the poor of their Christian flocks and their own brother pastors?"

The next business of Mr. Burke is an attempt to reconcile the plot of the present confederated powers against the liberties of France. One should have thought that such a system as he describes might have been left to die of itself, without the aid of foreign power. But strange as it may seem, Mr. Burke conceives such an incongruous heap of materials may be so cemented, as to prove dangerous to all surrounding



surrounding edifices. He means to say, we suppose, that should the government of any other nation be particularly oppressive, the people, roused by the example of France, may resist; and the spirit shewn by that nation, may induce them to assist in relieving the victims of despotism. That to prevent so dangerous a consequence, it is necessary for all the tyrants of Europe to unite, in order to crush at once this prolific hydra; at least this is all we can collect from his arguments on the subject. But lest a precedent should be wanted for interfering in the internal arrangements of a foreign state, Mr. Burke reminds us of a few instances very much to the purpose. "The King of Prussia, in concurrence with *us*, nobly interfered to save Holland from confusion. The same power, joined with the rescued, Holland, has put the emperor in possession of the Netherlands. The chamber of Wetzlar has restored the bishop of Liege, unjustly dispossessed by the rebellion of his subjects. The King of Prussia, from mere motives of policy, [the rest, we suppose, were from motives of justice] has snatched the Turk from the pounces of the Imperial eagle. If this be done in favour of the Turk, shall it be thought unjust to rescue from captivity a virtuous monarch, (by the country of Europe considered as most Christian) who," as Mr. B. says, "*without force assembled the states, &c.*" Should one pity or despise this sophistical display of words? Because Holland has been thwarted in its attempts at forming a fair representation, and enquiring into the abuses of its government and the expenditure of its enormous taxation; because the Stadtholder made use of his newly-acquired power, in assisting the emperor to rivet the chains of the Flemings; because the bishop of

Liege is again enabled to tax his subjects, without any power of appeal; and, lastly, because the King of Prussia, from policy, has assisted an Infidel, therefore ought he to assist his most Christian Majesty.

Mr. Burke, in his first long letter, observes, that men are apt to form themselves on the opinion the world entertains of them. If we could subscribe to this position without limitation, it would enable us to account for the dreadful massacres that have disgraced the late struggle for rights, which till now were never disputed. Let our readers peruse the following paragraph of Mr. Burke's, and they will cease to wonder if men, less softened by education, should commit the enormities we hope have been much exaggerated. "If ever a foreign prince enters into France, he must enter it as a country of assassins. The mode of civilized war will not be practised, nor are the French, who act on the present system, entitled to it. They, whose known policy it is to assassinate every citizen they suspect to be discontented by their tyranny, and to corrupt the soldiery of every open enemy, must look for no modified hostility. All war which is not battle, will be military execution. This will beget retaliation from you, and every retaliation will beget a new revenge. The hell-hounds of war on all sides will be uncoupled and unmuzzled. Such is the approaching golden age, which the Virgil of your assembly has sung to your Pollios."

If this letter has been read in France, and has been coupled with the Duke of Brunswick's proclamation, it may account, though it cannot apologize for, the transactions of the 2d of September.

The rest of the letter is taken up in a dissertation on vanity, and the character of Rousseau.



## P O E T R Y.

## SONNET.

WRITTEN ON A RAINY EVENING.

**T**HE dark cloud lours, and thence the  
chilling storm  
Sweeps o'er the bosom of the shiv'ring  
vale:  
Nature unrob'd displays her dreary form,  
And dismal moanings float upon the gale.  
No time for friendship's gentle evening  
walk,  
When genial spring sweet kiss'd the  
budding flow'r;  
Ah then, beguill'd by mirth and social talk,  
How quickly sped away the passing hour.  
Yet still around the blazing happy fire,  
Our minds may now by converse grave  
improve:  
Here gen'rous pity may the breast inspire,  
Here charity may share the heart with  
love.  
Though the dark storm may rustle thro'  
the sky,  
Yet may our spirits melt at mis'ry's servid  
sigh.

## TERRÆ CULTOR.

*Banks of the Severn.*

## SONNET.

TO A DEAD ROBIN.

**A**ND art thou gone?—ah! snatch'd in  
early day,  
Whilst yet in springing life's delicious  
bloom;  
No more thy little throat can pour the lay,  
The plaintive lay at ev'ning's pensive  
gloom.  
By pussy's dreadful claw thou low wert  
laid,  
Beneath yon haw-thorn's spray thy body  
lies:  
To thy poor shade no grateful requiem  
paid,  
Save by the tears that flow from Stella's  
eyes.  
Thine was the soothing song of love and  
peace,  
Thine was the note to soothe the care-  
struck breast;  
And pity 'twere those notes should ever  
cease,  
That bush the madden'd passions into  
rest.  
Yet, grateful for thy strain my breast the  
sigh shall heave,  
And o'er thy little grave, funeral wreathes  
I'll weave.

## TERRÆ CULTOR.

*Banks of the Severn.*

## THE GOITRE.

A FABLE.

**R**EADER! you've seen perchance, (for  
every sight  
John Bull's devout attention draws)  
You've seen with equal wonder and delight,  
The Monstrous Craws—  
Now if you feel your vigorous fancy able  
To give a mere uniform'd excrescence,  
Existence personal and essence,  
See how a Wen can figure in a fable.  
A Goitre in an Alpine valley bred,  
In shape and size full rival to the head,  
Esteem'd among the belles of Syon  
The prettiest lump of flesh was e'er set  
eye on,  
Made vain, as we may well suppose,  
With admiration, like a noddie  
Puff'd with self-consequence and folly,  
chose  
To stand in competition with the body.

And thus he argued—"In the general  
plan

That forms the common wealth of man,  
We may presume that every single part,  
In bulk and growth and distribution,  
Was made by never-erring art,  
Best suited to the human constitution.  
'Twere then enough for me to found pre-  
tensions

On my long standing, place and large di-  
mensions;  
But be it known, that if I please,  
I can bring better claims than these.

And first my privileges. When the head,  
Fatigu'd with thinking or with raking,  
Lies on the pillow pale and dead,  
Ready to split with aching;  
When the heart flutters, and with direful  
rumble  
The cholick'd bowels grumble;  
When limbs are on the rack,  
And grinding pains run thro' the long  
long back;  
I loll upon the breast,  
In ease and rest  
With nought to do, but put my juices  
To all their proper uses:  
And thus I fatten, grow and thrive,  
While they, poor souls! scarce keep them-  
selves alive.

Now for my services. I need not tell ye  
How once the members quarrel'd with the  
belly;

And still the resty rascals, led  
By the rebellious head,  
Are prone to riot.

'Tis then my task to keep them quiet,  
By draining off superfluous humours,  
Suppressing ferments and plethoric tumours,  
And

And by the wholesome system of starvation,  
Maintaining peace and due subordination.  
And thus I keep the balance even,  
And fit the body-politic for heaven.

These things consider'd, reason must agree,  
That place and preference are due to me;  
Yet, for the gen'ral welfare, I'm content  
To make a close and firm ALLIANCE,  
That we may all live easy and content,  
And bid our foes defiance."

While thus, Sir Goitre, swaggering and  
vap'ring,  
Led his poor passive partner such a life,  
Comes a French Surgeon flourishing and  
capering,

Who whipping out his knife,  
Made an incision to the quick,  
Like boys about a stick,  
And presently proceeded to dis sever  
The ill-match'd pair for ever and for ever.  
Here Goitre lay, a wither'd lifeless lump,  
While the disburthen'd body vigorous grew  
and plump.

Most states abound in hangers on and  
tumours,

From petty warts to wens of monstrous size,  
That suck the blood and waste the precious  
humours,

Yet call themselves supporters and allies.  
The French practitioners are bold and able,  
None better understand the art of  
lopping;

When English Surgeons come to practice  
cropping,

I'll try to find the Goitre of the fable.

#### THE SAINTS.

A PARODY, SUNG AT A PUBLIC MEET-  
ING OF FRIENDS TO A REPEAL OF  
THE PENAL LAWS RESPECTING  
RELIGION.

**T**O the Angel of England, who sat in  
high glee,

The found nonconformists address a pe-  
tition,

To beg he'd inspire mother church them to  
free

From the tests that dishonour the holy re-  
ligion.

"My permission you have," was the an-  
swer he gave,

"But such favors as those of the saints you  
must crave,

"And I with you success in attempting to  
yoke

"The palm of religion with liberty's oak."

The news thro' empyreum incontinent  
flew:

When old Peter pretended to give himself  
airs.

"If these mortals are suffer'd their scheme  
to pursue,

"There can't be a hierarchy left below  
stairs.

"Hark! already I hear, with terrified ear,  
"The church is in danger! new Cromwells  
are near!

"For all the dissenters are learning to yoke  
"The palm of religion with liberty's oak.

"Thy creed, Athanasius, these men dis-  
avow,

"And the thirty-nine articles read with a  
sneer.

"The episcopal bench will be tenantless  
now;

"And the biforked mitre a fool's-cap  
appear.

"My thunders, no fear on't, shall soon do  
their errand,

"I'll hurl them red hot at bold Priestley I  
warrant,

"And scare his fierce crew, for thus daring  
to yoke,

"The palm of religion with liberty's oak."

The yellow hair'd Andrew then said:  
"pr'ythee cease,

"Thou high-priest of the saints, such vile  
vociferation.

"Presbyterians in England 'tis true you  
may tease;

"But in Scotland you cannot deny them  
salvation,

"There over each head is a covenant spread,  
"And my sons' from your firebrands no  
mischiefs shall dread;

"But at leisure proceed in contriving to  
yoke

"The palm of religion with liberty's oak."

Next Patrick arose with his risible phis:  
"By my shoul! brave Saint Andrew, I'm  
all of your mind.

"Saint George is a fool, if he care for this  
quiss.

"My test-acts I gave long ago to the wind.  
"Come, Saint George, be not jealous of  
these honest fellows;

"Low churchmen are safer than such as  
are zealous:

"Their bigotted bishops unwillingly yoke  
"The palm of religion with liberty's oak."

"My lads," quoth Saint George, "all the  
while I was young

"Saint Peter and I remain'd very good  
friends:

"'Tis true we'd a quarrel, two centuries  
agone,

"But by pleasing him now I shall make  
him amends.

"When the pope was in fashion, I laugh'd  
at the passion:

"Now that others desert him I yearn with  
compassion,

"And, like him, will oppose every sect  
that would yoke

"The palm of religion with liberty's oak."

However, my friends, let us join hand in  
hand,

Preserve unanimity, tolerance and love:

'Tis

'Tis ours to support what's so happily  
plann'd;  
Perfection will win, tho' the great disap-  
prove.

While thus we agree, our toast let it be,  
' May every fashion of worship be free,  
' And Catholic, Jew and Dissenter all yoke  
' The palm of religion with liberty's oak.'

VERSES.

BY DR. GLYNN, M.D.  
FELLOW OF KING'S COLLEGE,  
CAMBRIDGE.

TEAZE me no more, nor think I care,  
Tho' monarchs bow at Kitty's shrine,  
Or powder'd coxcombs woo the fair,  
Since Kitty is no longer mine.

Indiff'rent 'tis alike to me,  
If my fav'rite dove be stole,  
Whether its dainty feathers be  
Pluck'd by the eagle or the owl.

If not for me its blushing lips  
The rose-bud opens, what care I  
Who the od'rous liquid sips,  
The king of bees or butterfly?

Like me, the Indians of Peru,  
Rich in mines of golden ore,  
Dejected see the merchant's crew  
Transport it to a foreign shore.

Seeks the slave despoil'd to know,  
Whether his gold, in shape of lace,  
Shine on the coat of birth-day bean,  
Or wear the stamp of George's face?

T H E A T R I C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E .

AT the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden,  
has been represented an historical play,  
called "Columbus; or, a World Disco-  
vered." The persons of the drama are,

Columbus, - - -	Mr. Pope.
Alonzo, - - -	Mr. Holman.
Roldan, - - -	Mr. Macready.
Harry Herbert, -	Mr. Lewis.
Valverde, - - -	Mr. Thompson.
Dr. Dolores, - -	Mr. Quick.
Bribon, - - -	Mr. Munden.
Moscoso, - - -	Mr. Cubitt.
Captain, - - -	Mr. Farley.

*Adventurers, Soldiers.*

*Indians.*

Orozimbo, - - -	Mr. Farren.
Sylasco, - - -	Mr. Harley.
Catalpo, - - -	Mr. Powell.
Cuto, - - -	Mr. Evatt.
Priest, - - -	Mr. Rock.

*Indian Women.*

Cora, - - -	Mrs. Pope.
Nelti, - - -	Mrs. Esten.

The following is a sketch of the fable:

Orozimbo and Priests are paying their  
adoration to the rising sun---Cora is intro-  
duced to become a priestess; the oath is  
mentioned, which explains that if she  
should become the victim of sacrilegious  
love, her death, and that of her lover, will  
be the consequence; or, if she flies from  
the temple, her parents' lives must answer  
for her crime. During this scene, the sun  
becomes obscured by clouds, and other  
omens which foretold the conquest of Ame-  
rica; the ships are seen in a hurricane;  
Orozimbo collects his warriors, and pro-  
ceeds in grand procession to the shore, to  
view these foreign wonders. The next  
scene gives the landing of Columbus, with  
the form of taking possession of the New

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World: he enquires for the man who dis-  
covered land, which introduces Herbert, a  
young Englishman; this is followed by  
the approach of Orozimbo and his people.  
Here Alonzo, a Spanish gentleman, sees  
Cora, and they feel a mutual tenderness.  
Orozimbo and Columbus, with their par-  
ties, march off.

Roldan, the second in command, having  
obtained from the king a commission of  
controul, proceeds to urge the troops to  
mutiny, and with the aid of Valverde,  
(a monk) succeeds in his wish---loads Co-  
lumbus with chains, and sends him to  
Spain.

Alonzo abandons the Spaniards, and  
dedicates his fortunes to Orozimbo. They  
proceed to the temple of the sun to per-  
form a sacrifice for war, when Alonzo  
again sees Cora; she faints at the sight,  
and is borne off. To this succeeds a con-  
vulsion of the earth, and a volcano. Alonzo,  
anxious for the fate of Cora, hovers round  
the walls of the temple---the devastation  
increases---the volcano is seen, the temple  
totters, and in the ruins Cora is seen cling-  
ing to a column---Alonzo rushes in and  
bears her away.

In the morning they are discovered to-  
gether, when Cora, rousing from the  
pleasing lethargy the presence of Alonzo  
had occasioned, reflects that her absence  
from the temple may be attended with the  
death of her family. She resolves to return  
and meet her fate.

Some time having elapsed, Sylasco, the  
father of Cora, meets Alonzo, and upbraids  
him with the ruin of his child---bids him  
depart. The chief then enters, informing  
Alonzo that the Spaniards meditate an at-  
tack on the town: Alonzo relates the situ-  
ation of Cora, and the chief promises her  
life and liberty. During the battle, Ca-  
talpo, the chief priest of the sun, determines  
to fulfil the law, and orders Cora to be  
brought

brought to death: the signal is given for her dissolution, when Alonzo (who is supposed to have fallen) rushes in and saves her. Then the chief eniers, laments that the Spaniards have been victorious, and they must prepare for death: shouts are then heard, and Herbert appears with intelligence, that, at the moment of defeat, Columbus had again returned, and that they may now expect to see him triumphant, and his enemies in chains. A procession then takes place, and Columbus enters and restores happiness to Orozimbo and his people.

The comic business of the play is formed by Dolores and Fribo's endeavours to influence Nelli against Herbert, which throws them into many comic situations.

The prologue is by Mr. Fitzgerald; the epilogue by Mr. Andrews; the music for the marches is composed by Mr. Shield.

At the same Theatre the beautiful dramatic poem of *Elfrida* was revived, with every advantage that the manager could possibly furnish. The characters were represented as follow:

Edgar, - - - -	Mr. Holman.
Orgur, - - - -	Mr. Farren.
Edwin, - - - -	Mr. Harley.
Ardulph, - - - -	Mr. Macready.
Athelwold, - - - -	Mr. Pope.

Elfrida, by a young lady, being her first appearance on any stage.

Albina, (with the odes) Mrs. Pope.

Of this charming piece, which has been so long deservedly admired in the closet by every judge of poetry, it is unnecessary to mention the plot, or any of the more striking passages. It is sufficient to say that, in simplicity of fable, and consequent paucity

of incidents, it bears a close and fine resemblance of the Greek drama. The poet has happily blended the nature and softness of Euripides with the force and fire of Sophocles; and we have no doubt that had he lived in the same age with either of these admired poets, and clothed his thoughts in their glowing and sonorous language, a polished Athenian audience would have placed him in the first class of their most admired dramatists. For, if he wants the nerve of England's boast, the inimitable Shakespear, he possesses all the delicacy and milder graces of the Grecian muse in no small degree. This production may be "caviar to the million," but we are confident that every mind accustomed to classic excellence (and of such, London, in this enlightened period can produce sufficient numbers to fill the largest theatre) must derive from its representation the most refined pleasure. It will bring to their recollection the happiest, because the most innocent stage of life—when to acquire knowledge was their only care, and in the pursuit their virtue was invigorated, and their minds stored with principles of real honour.

The young lady who performed *Elfrida*, if we considered it as her first public effort, has a claim to much praise, and will certainly prove a valuable acquisition to the stage, even though she should not considerably improve upon her first attempt.

In the recitation of the delightful odes, Mrs. Pope cannot be sufficiently praised.

In *Athelwold*, Mr. Pope's merit was conspicuous: and Holman acted with a properly chastised spirit, and was much, and justly applauded.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

*Warsaw, Oct. 17.*

**T**HE deputies of the confederation sent to Petersburg, have demanded credentials of his majesty also; but the king has had permission to refuse them, on the motive that in 1767 a similar deputation had no such letters granted them.

The grand chancellor of the crown has given an official answer to the chargé d'affairs of the emperor concerning the demand of Prince Saitowski; it is in substance, that the confederation is very far from exercising personal revenge against any person whatever, but cannot change the decrees, which subject every person employed by the state, or who may sit as nuncio in the diet, to the prescribed oath.

An universal was published the 9th of this month, in which an indulgence was granted to the repentant, and rigorous punishments threatened to those who oppose the views of the confederation. In short, it is the outline of an amnesty, and

it is thought that the next diet will commence its labours with this measure.

The deputation of the generality had a solemn audience of the king on Sunday last. His majesty received them on the throne. The grand chancellor, and sub-chancellor of Lithuania answered in the name of the king.

Count Potocki, marshal of the confederation, has had an interview with the Prince Primate, the king's brother, at Sielke, but nothing has yet transpired, either of the object or success of this conference.

The Russian troops are continually arriving to take up, even in this city, their winter-quarters. They are in general, so stationed, that ours can undertake nothing. Great Poland is full. The regiment of Wozzowski, in garrison at Cracovia, has retreated, to give place to the empress's troops; therefore, when they talk of re-establishing the army on its former footing, and even incorporating new regiments with

the

the old, it is but one cheat more. The Poles are really subjugated and governed by the Russians.

The governing or anti-constitutional party seeks every occasion to throw its hate to its adversaries; the violent of this party had proposed to punish those who would not give up the metal which was struck in honour of Prince Poniatowski: but the more moderate have rejected this proposition.

*Stockholm, Oct. 30.* The health of the young monarch becomes more precarious every day, and the spouse of the Duke Regent lies dangerously ill.

M. Aken, the assessor, acquitted himself on the 27th instant to the utmost satisfaction of the royal family, and several thousands of spectators. After having set fire to a vessel full of combustibles in our harbour, he extinguished the flames in the space of three minutes, by means of a vitriolic mixture. His majesty has decorated this ingenious man with the order of Vasa, and granted him a very extensive privilege. But he will be much better rewarded in England, where a premium of 500,000 florins is offered him for the discovery of a secret, which concerns so nearly the life and prosperity of mankind in general.

*Vienna, Nov. 3.* Intelligence has been just received by our court from Constantinople, that the Porte is arming both by land and sea, and that 150 ships are preparing at Cherfon to take troops on board.

We still expect to be successful in our negotiations with France; and fresh instructions have been sent Baron Spielman to Luxembourg.

Twenty battalions of infantry, and eight divisions of cavalry, are put in motion, and 10,000 men are to be sent as a reinforcement to Brisgau.

*Hanover, Nov. 8.* Our regency has published a proclamation respecting the French emigrants, by which all those who approach the frontiers of the electorate, and enter the same, without proving that they have any business in this or the neighbouring provinces, are to be sent back immediately, without regard to rank, situation, or passports. It is further stated in this proclamation, that those Frenchmen who come here by post, or any public conveyance, and can prove that they have business, shall be permitted to travel through the country, but not suffered to stay longer in any one place than forty-eight hours.

*Ratisbon, Nov. 9.* The deliberations respecting the third article of the imperial aulic decree of the 1st of September, respecting the safety and war of the empire, which were fixed for the 5th instant, have been quite unexpectedly put off. Several electoral courts are said to have altered their instructions. The day before the delibera-

tions were to take place, Estates arrived at the hotels of the Electoral envoys. Some fresh design occupies the courts.

The sudden arrival of Prince Hohenloe at Vienna, where he assisted at the council of state, and returned immediately after to the army, is very mysterious.

It is said, that a certain great general has been carried to Vienna, loaded with chains, for having used some treasonable practices in a great enterprise, owing to which General Dumourier escaped being surrounded.

All the French emigrants have received peremptory orders to quit this city. No Frenchman is to be admitted without special permission, which will be a hard matter for any one to obtain.

#### AMERICAN NEWS.

*Richmond, Virginia, Oct. 6.* There fell a severe frost the nights of the 20th, 21st, 27th, and 28th ult. which, from the best information, has cut off at least one third of the tobacco crop. There was not near a full crop pitched, it was late in the season before it was planted, which occasions the loss to be so great; few people had cut much when the frost fell.

*Patuxent, Oct. 12.* The damage done by the late frost is now too well known amongst us; and, on a general average, nearly one-third of all the present crop of tobacco in Ann-Arundel county, particularly this neighbourhood, is destroyed. There never was so gloomy a prospect for the planters.

I was at George-town a few days ago, and find the damage in Montgomery county is even greater than with us; and have reason to think it is general in the state, particularly where the fine tobacco is chiefly made.

*New-York, Oct. 10.* British manufactures are the only articles that sell in America--- forty-nine parts out of fifty of our trade are carried on with Britain and its colonies, both of exports and imports---they have cut every other nation out---any ships from France, Germany, Holland, &c. only bring passengers---the people of the United States would make great sacrifices for a treaty with Great Britain. Your manufactures are as necessary for us as clothing is for a naked man. Goods we cannot get so cheap from any other state in Europe---and the cheapness of land draws our hands from every branch to prosecute agriculture. The only manufactures carried on in the United States to a great extent is, tanned and wrought leather of all sorts, and several coarse and heavy articles in the iron way.

#### SELECTION OF FRENCH NEWS.

The session of the national convention of France, of the 5th of November, was chiefly taken up in hearing the defence of Roberfpierre, who acquitted himself to the satisfaction

fiction of the majority of the convention, and his discourse was ordered to be printed.

Louvet and Barbaroux wished to denounce him again, but the assembly would not listen to them, and passed on to the order of the day. Towards the conclusion of the session a letter was read from General Custine: he informed the assembly, that he was occupied in circulating, in the country which he is master of, proclamations, announcing the intentions of France. He says they have already been attended with the greatest success. A patriotic society has been established at Mentz, at the first session of which the general pronounced a republican discourse. He solicits, in capacity of provisional agent of the executive power, the abolition of all the feudal rights in the countries which the French armies occupy. The great courage and strict discipline of his army have, he says, had great effect. From forty to fifty leagues around him, couriers have been sent by the princes of the empire, states, and free towns, to solicit the protection of the French republic.

Another letter was read from General Custine, informing the convention, that some detachments of his army, under the command of Colonel Houchard, had penetrated into Franconia as far as Ermsstein, and that they have defeated a party of Hessians, and taken 131 prisoners, amongst whom are three officers.

The convention referred the request made by General Custine, relative to the suppression of the tenths and feudal rights in the conquered countries, to the legislative and diplomatic committees.

In the session of the 6th of November, a letter was read from the commissioners sent to the frontiers of the Pyrenees. They announce that the organization of the army of the Pyrenees goes on rapidly and successfully. Ten thousand men, they say, are sufficient to render the frontiers of the Upper and Lower Pyrenees impenetrable. He adds, that they have re-established unanimity among the Bosques, and denounces a number of abuses which prevail in different administrations, and in the civil and military tribunals. They have given the Bohemians liberty to assist at the primary assemblies.

Valaze, in the name of the committee of twenty-four, made a report of the charges against the ci-devant king, which the assembly ordered to be printed.

A letter was read from General Custine, informing the convention that the city of Frankfort had paid part of the contribution, and given a note for the rest, payable in the course of ten months, at two separate payments. The city of Frankfort has, however, requested him to intercede with the convention, that the remaining sum of 1,000,000 of florins may be reduced to 500,000, and that the city may be taxed no

more during the war. Referred to the committee of finance.

A letter was read from General Kellerman, dated Mentz, the 4th of November, in which he informs the convention, that Custine had acquainted him that he had denounced him to the convention; but he says he must have been mad or intoxicated when he did it. Custine taxes him with flying in a cowardly manner in the affair at Landau between the first regiment of dragoons and the hussars of Wurmsfur; but, if there had been any misconduct, Custine is the last person that should prefer an accusation, who both posted his regiment badly, and did not head it himself. As to Victor Broglie and himself, they were obliged to retire, or they must have been taken prisoners. He says he means to commence his winter campaign on the first of January with every prospect of success. Enclosed he sent his plan, which, however, was not read, it being highly improper to divulge it. His letter was referred to the committee of inspection.

In the session of the national convention, of the 27th of November, a letter was read from General Custine, dated from Mentz, informing the convention that a detachment of French had taken a boat on the Moselle with 2000 sacks of oats, which it had thrown into the Moselle in the sight of a detachment of 400 Prussians, forming the advanced guard of 4000 sick from Coblenz, who did not dare to attack the French.

The home minister sent an account of the present state of provisions in Paris. According to that account there are 20,936 sacks of flour. They expect 12,288 septiers of 147,456 bushels more, which are on their way.

The convention decreed, in the name of the French people, the re-union of the ci-devant Duchy of Savoy with France.

In the session of the 28th of November, a letter was read from the commissioners sent to Lyons, informing the convention that they had been unable to proceed to Montpelier, on account of a commotion which had broke out between the volunteers of Du Var and those of the Center; one of the latter had been assassinated by a volunteer of Du Var, who, on being seized, was liberated by his companions, with the assistance of the national guards: however, the culprits had been retaken, and the volunteers of Du Var had been ordered to quit Lyons and repair to Besancon.

Two deputations were admitted from England. The purport of their mission was to congratulate the French on the success of their arms.

The second address was from the patriotic society of London, and was nearly to the same purport. It was signed Sempil, president; D. Adams, secretary; Joel Barlow and T. Frost, deputies. The speaker



speaker of this deputation informed the convention that the society had sent over to the sons of liberty 1000 pair of shoes.

Kerstaint made a motion to abolish the slave trade, which was referred to the diplomatic committee.

A letter was read from the home minister, informing the convention of the disturbances which prevailed in different parts of the kingdom, on account of the scarcity of provisions, and concluded by stating that an insurrection was expected in Paris. General Santerre, however, assured the convention that the city of Paris was in the utmost tranquillity.

Two letters were read from General Dumourier, dated from Liege the 28th of November: the first was to the convention, announcing the capture of Liege, and the other was to the war minister, containing the details of that event. Dumourier on the 27th attacked the rear guard of the Austrians, consisting of 12,000 men, whom he defeated; they had a great number killed, and those wounded filled 37 waggon; but their chief loss was General Staray, who was killed. Dumourier says, they were better provided with artillery than before, and made a stout resistance after the action. The French, who had only three killed, and fourteen wounded, entered Liege in triumph, and were received with the utmost joy. A motion was made to vote an address of thanks to General Dumourier, but that was over-ruled, and an address to the army decreed instead.

A letter was read from a commissioner on board the fleet before Genoa, informing the convention that the Genoese were about to assert their rights, and make themselves free. The presence of the French Squadron gives them courage, and they ardently wish to be united to France.

A letter was read from the commissioners at Nice, announcing that General Anselm had retaken the Port of Saspello without losing a man. The troops, they say, however, are in great want of coats, breeches, and shoes.

The national convention of France has received intelligence that the insurrection in the departments of the Eure and Loire was suppressed. The administrative bodies of the town of Chartres, with the assistance of their neighbours, surrounded a body of the rioters, consisting of about 4000, who immediately laid down their arms. The most seditious amongst them made some resistance, but their companions gave them up, as being the authors of those commotions, and they were conveyed to gaol. The rest dispersed, and retired peaceably to their homes.

The convention testified to the administrative bodies of these departments the satisfaction they received from their conduct; ordered that honourable mention should be

made of it in their minutes, and that their letter should be printed and transmitted to all the departments.

A naval captain, belonging to the republic, complained that he had been insulted in the port of Malta. Gregoire, in name of the diplomatic committee, proposed that the convention should order the executive power to examine this fact.

By a subsequent decree, the convention reduced the pensions granted to the members of the order of Malta to the same standard as those of other ecclesiastics, that is to say, to a thousand livres.

The remainder of the sitting was employed in hearing petitions.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

To shew the rapidity with which Glasgow advances in population and prosperity, it may be mentioned, that, on Sunday last, in the north-west church, twenty children were baptised, and fifty couple proclaimed for marriage.

In the evening of the 5th inst. came into the harbour of Aberairon, Cardiganthire, a schooner from Fishguard, in Pembroke-shire, with only one man on board.

This vessel was left the preceding evening in his care; but a violent gale of wind coming on in the night, she was driven from her anchor and forced out to sea. By mere dint of skill, and uncommon intrepidity, however, he again brought her to anchor, about five leagues from New-quay Point; and, what is very remarkable, when the ebb tide came on, he weighed anchor, and arrived here, without the smallest assistance.

The sea ran so very high during all this time, that it was with difficulty this solitary navigator could prevent himself from being washed overboard; and though he lost many of the materials during this tempestuous voyage, yet by the greatest activity, and presence of mind, he replaced the necessary parts, and brought his charge safe to port—exhibiting a rare instance of courage and perseverance, amidst the most overwhelming danger.

By dispatches from Sierra Leone, dated the 10th of September, brought by the Calypso, belonging to the Bollam company, it appears that the colony at Sierra Leone were recovering from all the difficulties with which they had had to struggle, which had been much aggravated during the rainy months.

The health of the colonists, but more particularly of the Nova-Scotia blacks, was improving; the building of public works was proceeding; a great degree of order as well as internal harmony was introduced, and the full establishments of the colony was not questioned. The company's ship York, of 1200 tons, had just arrived, carrying out Lieutenant Dawes, the assistant councillor

counsellor to Governor Clarkson, as well as the chaplain to the settlement, and a schoolmaster. The institution of schools, the establishment of an hospital or dispensary, the regular distributions of lands, and the formation of a more compleat and permanent town, were beginning to be entered upon. The company's mineralogist had set off upon an expedition into the country, and the botanist was pursuing his researches. The natives united in some measure with the Nova-Scotia blacks. The natives continued perfectly friendly, and often flocked to Free Town, though no regular trade with them had been opened, nor had any material advantage been yet derived to the company from their labour. No great supply of fresh provisions had yet been procured, but many fowls had been sent both from England and Teneriffe, and the increase of them was remarkably rapid.

The attention of the governor and council had been so much confined to the immediate wants of the colony, and the company's ships had, from various causes, been detained so much at Sierra Leone, that no African produce had been collected, nor any general trade to Sierra Leone as yet begun; but the arrival of the York, as well as a commercial agent, would facilitate the colony's progress in this respect. The rains had not yet entirely ceased; but they proved upon the whole much less severe than was expected; and the climate (notwithstanding the great number of deaths among the lower whites) was thought upon the whole to be quite as good as that of other uncleared and unimproved tropical countries. The soil, where it has been cultivated, proved in general extremely productive.

#### MARRIED.

Isaac Pope, Esq. of Hodgdon Green, Middlesex, to Miss Fanny Goodchild, of the same place.

Michael Foveaux, Esq. of the war-office, to Miss Short, of Chelsea.

Chevalier Raibaud de la Cainie, of Nice, to Miss Mill, daughter of the late Sir Richard Mill, baronet.

S. Pott, Esq. to Miss Eade, of Stoke Newington.

William Petrie, Esq. second in council at Madras, to Mrs. Smith, of Upper Seymour-street.

At Edinburgh, Hugh Jute, Esq. to Miss Chenevix.

John Turner, Esq. of the Inner Temple, to Miss E. Beecher.

John Alexander, Esq. of South Lambeth, to Miss Carlan, of Vauxhall.

The Rev. Henry Dyson, of King's College, Cambridge, to Miss Elizabeth Ledge, of Clare-Hall.

George Norman, Esq. of Bromley, Kent, to Miss Beaden.

Bradford Wilmer, Esq. of Coventry, to Miss Sophia Mugton.

Thomas Hulton, Esq. of Andover, in Hants, to Miss Adams, eldest daughter of George Adams, Esq. of Litchfield.

D'Arcy Preston, Esq. to Miss Sophia Nares.

Sir Walter Blount, bart. to Miss Ann Riddle, of Swenburn Castle, Northumberland.

Capt. Parflow, of the king's regiment of dragoons, to Miss Woolf, daughter of Sir Jacob Woolf, baronet.

The Rev. Israel Worlsey, minister of the English church at Dunkirk, to Miss Denny, of Coventry.

At Naples, Sir James Douglass, British consul at that place, to Miss Douglass.

John Charles Joseph, Esq. of Dublin, to Miss Francis Fancourt, of Uppingham, Rutlandshire.

George Naylor, Esq. of the herald's office, to Miss C. Williams.

Sir Robert Mackworth, baronet, to Miss Miers, of Richmond.

The Rev. — Gosling, to Miss Mills, of Colchester.

#### D I E D.

Robert Banks Hodgkinson, Esq. of New Burlington-street.

Thomas James Storey, Esq.

Mrs. Kenrick, of Exeter.

Aged 84, John Hayes, Esq. of the Exchequer.

At Edinburgh, the Hon. Mrs. Mackay, relict of the late Col. Mackay, of Bighouffe.

At Gibraltar, the Hon. George Byng, only son of Viscount Torrington.

At Conholt, in Hampshire, aged 92, Sir Sidney Meadows, knight, marshal of England.

Aged 74, the Countess Dowager of Ilchester.

At Walthamstow, Thomas Fletcher, Esq.

Mr. — Akerman, many years keeper of Newgate.

Aged 62, George Onslow, Esq. out-ranger of Windfor Forest.

Aged 84, in the King's Bench prison, of a broken heart, Mrs. Dance.

Randolph Ekins, Esq. treasurer of the Royal Assurance company.

The Rev. Thomas Boggust, one of the assistant masters of Eaton school.

Mrs. Dixon, wife of Col. Dixon, of the engineers.

Lady Mary Bellenden, aged 91, grandmother of the present lord.

G. Mitchel, Esq. of Thornhill, Yorkshire.

John Humphreys Jones, Esq. of Llanfyllin, in Montgomeryshire.

Richard Vyvian Welleford, Esq.

Miss Collins, daughter of Daniel Collins, Esq. of the Isle of Wight.

John Parry, Esq. of Ashton, in Herefordshire.

Thomas

Thomas Thorpe, Esq. fellow of Peter-House, Cambridge.

In Conduit-street. W. Bromfield, Esq.

Miss Grosly, eldest daughter of the late Dr. Grosly, of Four Oaks, in the county of Warwick.

Aged 64, Charles Triquet, Esq. one of the justices of the peace for the county of Middlesex.

Aged 82, Frederick Pigou, Esq.

The Right Hon. Lord Dover.

Mrs. Auther, of Waltham Abby.

George Horsley, Esq. of Epfom, Surry.

Phillip Thicknes, Esq. father of Lord Audley.

Aged 82, Mrs. Laidley, of Bath.

Sir David Dalrymple, of New Hailes, one of the senators of the college of justices in Scotland.

Mrs. Serjeant, of Great Ormond-street.

Sir William Fordyce, knight, M. D.

At Bath, Hugh Pigot, Esq.

At Aylesbury, Bucks, Mr. Thomas Dagnall, bookseller and banker of that place.

At his house at Few-hall, near Salisbury, William Batt, Esq. in the 77th year of his age.

#### BANKRUPTS.

James Hutchinson, of Fleet-street, oilman. James Laidley, of Defour's-place, Broad-street, Carnaby-market, taylor. William James, of Lombard-street, wax-chandler. James Boardman the younger, of Manchester, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer. Samuel Hobbs, of Wimborne-Minster, Dorsetshire, spirit-merchant. John Booth, of Floore, Northamptonshire, baker. George Reynolds, late of Rochampton, Surry, money-scrivener. John Noad, of Millbank-street, carpenter. George Such, of the Strand, haberdasher. Thomas Sharp, of Whitechapel High-street, oil and colourman. William Fielde, of London, merchant. Josiah Ames, of Great Keyford, Froine Selwood, Somersetshire, clothier. John Clegg, of Manchester, Lancashire, cotton-manufacturer. William Gurfurd, of All Saints, Cambridge, dealer. Richard Grubb, of Jermyn-street, St. James's, merchant. John Atkinson, of Pontefract, Yorkshire, victualler. William James, of Alford-place, Southwark, builder. Thomas Barrington, of Duke's-court, St. Martin's-lane, taylor. Thomas Stanton, of Leadenhall-street, merchant. Peter Price, of Bury-street, St. James's, Westminster, carpenter. John Lelley, of Hollywell-street, Strand, mercer. Jeffery Brown, of Holborn, gingerbread-baker. Benjamin Edwards, of Stratford, Essex, dealer in wine. Benjamin Stevens, of Turnham-green, Middlesex, inn-keeper. Peter Foot, of Andover, in the county of Hants, tobaccoist. Thomas Holbeck, of Cripplegate-buildings, St. Giles's, butcher. George

Taylor, of Bilston, Staffordshire, grocer. John Timmings the younger, of Stewart-street, Spital-fields. Edward Lucas, Allen-street, Clerkenwell, Middlesex, dealer in timber. Edmund Nash, Southampton-buildings, Holborn, Middlesex, money-scrivener. Jonathan Hopkinson, late of Ludgate-street, chinaman. Jonathan Pearson, Prince's-street, St. James's, Westminster, Middlesex, glover. Abraham North and James Goodall, of Heckmondwicke, in the parish of Birstall, county of York, carpet-manufacturers. James Rogers, Wethoughton, county of Lancaster, sustian-manufacturer. John Smith, Blackburn, county of Lancaster, cotton-manufacturer. Thomas Calrow, of Hatton-garden, Middlesex, taylor. Charles Paramore, of Chapel-street, Holywell Mount, Middlesex, printer. George Wilmot, late of Sutton upon Trent, county of Nottingham, cornfactor. William Spelman Ayres, of Brandon's-row, Newington, Surry, oil-maker. Francis Lewis Morgan, of Threadneedle-street, London, tea-dealer. William Youd, of Liverpool, master and mariner. John Young, of Stow Market, in the county of Suffolk, grocer. Joseph Ryley, late of Kingston upon Thames, Surry, tanner. John Hewitt, of Friday-street, warehouseman. Richard Boardman, late of Bradley Hall, within Burton-wood, Lancashire, dealer and chapman. Richard Bowen, late of Hand-court, Holborn, victualler. Samuel Weight, of Queen-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, grocer. Thomas Nash, of the Strand, broker. Daniel Blachford and Richard Blachford, of Lombard-street, lacemen and co-partners. John Harris, of Budge-row, Cannon-street, taylor. John Bradley, of Halifax, in the county of York, silver-smith. Allen Rose, of Birmingham, button-maker. Joseph Hooper, of Mount-street, Grosvenor-square, baker. George Betley and John Ainsworth, of Manchester, liquor merchants. Thomas Hoare, of Holborn, London, cutler. Matthew Payn, of Bateman's-buildings, Soho, Middlesex, money-scrivener. Thomas Martin, of Smithfield, mercer. William Wakelin, of Windmill-street, dealer in timber. Thomas Eldred, of Castle-court, Birch-lane, shipbroker. William Kentish, of St. Alban's, Hertfordshire, tallow-chandler. John Colyer and James Colyer, of Drury-lane, bellows-makers. Edward Barker, of Old Ford, Middlesex, callico-printer. Abraham Delamy, of Blackfriars-road, ironmonger. Charles Wilton Bowley and Robert Smith, of Holborn-hill, ironmongers. John Cooper, of Stoney-lane, Southwark, wheelwright. Peter Clunn the younger, of Wapping-street, carpenter. John Davies Thomas and William Brown, Church-street, Southwark, woollen-draper. Charles Stuart, of Felling Shore, Duffham, ship-builder. James Fellowes, of Oxford-street, apothecary.



# I N D E X

TO VOL. IX. OF THE

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